

**A GOVERNMENT-BINDING BASED PARSER  
FOR WARLPIRL,  
A FREE-WORD ORDER LANGUAGE**

by

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# Abstract

Free word order languages have long posed significant problems for standard parsing algorithms. This thesis presents an implemented parser, based on Government Binding (GB) theory, for a particular free-word order language, Warlpiri, an aboriginal language of central Australia.

The words in a sentence of a free word order language may swap about relatively freely with little effect on meaning: the permutations of a sentence mean essentially the same thing. It is assumed that this similarity in meaning is directly reflected in the syntax. The parser presented here properly processes free word order because it assigns the same syntactic structure to the permutations of a single sentence. The parser also handles fixed word order, as well as other phenomena. On the view presented here, there is no such thing as a "configurational" or "non-configurational" language. Rather, there is a spectrum of languages that are more or less ordered.

The operation of this parsing system is quite different in character from that of more traditional rule-based parsing systems, e.g., context free parsers. In this system, parsing is carried out via the construction of two different structures, one encoding precedent information and one encoding hierarchical information. This bipartite representation is the key to handling both free- and fixed order phenomena.

This thesis first presents an overview of the portion of Warlpiri that can be parsed. Following this is a description of the linguath theory on which the parser is based. The chapter after that describes the representations and algorithms of the parser. In conclusion, the parser is compared to related work. The appendix contains a substantial list of test cases—both grammatical and ungrammatical—that the parser has actually processed.

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This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Eva and Shelby Kashket.

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## Chapter 1

# Introduction

This thesis presents a solution for the previously unsolved problem of parsing free word order languages.<sup>1</sup> In these languages, the words in a sentence may swap about relatively freely with little effect on meaning; the permutations of a sentence mean essentially the same thing. It is assumed that the similarity in meaning is directly reflected in the syntax. So, a parser that properly processes free word order must assign the same syntactic structure to the permutations of a sentence. The parser also handles fixed word order, as well as other syntactic phenomena.

Until recently, many natural-language parsers have been designed around computationally attractive formalisms such as context free grammars, that have little linguistic foundation. To date, these parsers have worked correctly on but a limited subset of natural utterances. However, they have arrived at their results quite quickly. The theory of parsing presented in this thesis, on the other hand, is based on one current linguistic theory. The result is that the implemented parser outputs linguistically meaningful structures corresponding to the input sentence. The main hypothesis here is that we are more likely to arrive at a successful parser if we base it on linguistic theory, rather than on computational considerations alone.

The parsing model must, of course, be tested on a natural language. Warlpiri, an aboriginal language from central Australia, was chosen because it is perhaps the paradigmatic natural language exhibiting free word order. On a more practical level, Warlpiri has a relatively simple syntax, and a fairly small lexicon, which makes for an easier job of producing a parser that handles an appreciable subset of the language. Finally, there has been a good deal of linguistic inquiry into the language (see, for example, [Jae79], [Hal83], [Sun83], [Nash]), which increases the chances that a parser based on this theory will actually perform well.

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<sup>1</sup>Johnson, 1983b, has written a parser based on Drifake Clause Grammar that covers the extreme cycling permutation found in free-word order languages. The parser is written in a general proof system, and thus suffers from a lack of explanatory power which Johnson does acknowledge. A parser that provides a true solution to this problem must output the syntactically motivated structures.

<sup>2</sup>Lexical-Functional Grammar seems to provide a well-motivated analysis of free-word order phenomena. In fact, it is very similar to the theoretical basis of the parser presented here. However, I am unaware of any parser based on LFG that processes free-word order languages. See the concluding chapter for some remarks on LFG.

Here is a concrete example from the target language of the parser: *remember (1)*.<sup>18</sup>

- (1) *Ayapala rla la-rua rla pañu-ru kanda-lye karch*  
 I REG IMPERF 1-3 take NONPAST child DAT boomering  
 'I am taking the boomering from the child'

The first word of (1), *ayapala rla*, is the subject; the last word, *karch*, is the object, and the fourth word, *kanda-lye*, is the indirect object. The grammatical functions (i.e. subject, object, and indirect object) of these words are determined by their case-markings (i.e. *-ra* of *ayapala-rla*), and not by their positions, as in, say, English. This is exemplified by the sentences in (2) which are equivalent ways of saying (1).<sup>19</sup> In these sentences the *main* move about freely. Notice that the verb, *pañu-ru*, appears in different positions as well although not demonstrated here; it may also begin the sentence.

- (2) a. *Karch la-rua rla pañu-ru ayapala-rla kanda-lye*  
 boomering IMPERF 1-3 take NONPAST I REG child DAT  
 'It is the boomering I am taking from the child.'  
 b. *Kanda-lye la-rua rla ayapala rla karch pañu-ru*  
 child-DAT IMPERF 1-3 REG boomering take-NONPAST  
 'From the child I am taking the boomering.'  
 c. *Ayapala-rla la-rua rla pañu-ru karch kanda-lye*  
 I REG IMPERF 1-3 take NONPAST boomering child DAT  
 'I am taking the boomering from the child.'

There is, however, an ordering constraint shown in these examples. The auxiliary word, *la-rua rla*, must appear in the second position.<sup>20</sup> Even given the fixed position of the auxiliary, these four permutations do not exhaust the possibilities for uttering this sentence. There are in fact 4!, or 24, different ways of saying the same thing.

So far we have been talking about meaning, and not the parser's *asipet* domain, syntax. The claim here is that the aspect of meaning that remains constant across word permutations are directly mirrored in syntax. That is, the ordering of the words is independent of their grammatical location, which is later interpreted as part of the meaning of the sentence. In order for a parser to properly handle free word order, it must output the same syntactic structures for each of the permutations of

<sup>18</sup>Until recently there was no written Wapit. Now the Wapit are being taught a written system that uses Roman characters. This is also a standard orthography for the phonemes that do not appear in English (e.g. *ap* is used to denote a palatalized nasal similar to the English *nap*). [See [Mull] for a complete description.] The typographs in the examples are not part of the standard written system; they are included only to aid the system reader.

<sup>19</sup>In this sentence the objects *kanda-lye* and *karch* are given a definite reading. In general, this information is unobtainable from the sentence itself and must be gleaned from context. For simplicity definite references will be used.

<sup>20</sup>There is some difference among the sentences, of course, but it concerns a change in focus, rather than a change in meaning. The first word is given a slight emphasis over the others. This subtle difference is unmarked in the English translations for the sentences.

<sup>21</sup>Actually it *must* appear in the first position too. The details are rather complex, and they are described below.



a single sentence. The result of parsing (1) and its permuted cousins should yield structures that encode the grammatical functions shown in (3).

- (3) subject            ngajda ('I')  
       object            keri ['hominang']  
       indirect object   kerdä ('child')

The ability to parse such examples has eluded previous parsing systems. Their difficulty with free word order can be demonstrated with a very common parsing technology, context free parsing, that came from compiler design.<sup>7</sup> Context-free parsers are based on context free grammars, consisting of a set of rewrite rules. These rules contain a left hand side and a right hand side. On the left is a single non-terminal symbol which may be replaced with the string of symbols (terminal and non terminal) on the right. Given a spelled start symbol, the grammar is said to derive a string if there is some sequence of rewrites that results in a sequence of terminal symbols that matches the string. The language of such a grammar is the set of strings that it can derive through all possible sequences of rewrites.

Context free parsers suffer from two problems when it comes to parsing free word order languages; both result from the nature of these underlying grammar formalisms. The first problem is that extremely unspacious grammars must be written in order to cover word permutation. These grammars lose the regularity behind grammatical functions. Consider the grammar in (4) that covers a language containing exclusively transitive verbs (i.e., sentences consist of a verb, a subject, and an object). With this grammar six rules are required to obscurely encode the fact that verbs take two nouns, one of which is the subject and one of which is the object.

- (4)  $S \rightarrow NP_s NP_o V$   
 $S \rightarrow NP_s V NP_o$   
 $S \rightarrow V NP_s NP_o$   
 $S \rightarrow NP_o NP_s V$   
 $V \rightarrow NP_s V NP_o$   
 $S \rightarrow V NP_o NP_s$

These parsers have a more significant failing. The structures that they output are not linguistically precise because they do not make explicit important syntactic relations. The sample grammar does not, for instance, highlight the grammatical functions of subject and object. A better grammar would encode this information directly, such as the hierarchical grammar given in (5). Here the subject is the sibling of the verb phrase (denoted 'VP') and the object is the sibling of the verb.

- (5)  $S \rightarrow NP_s VP$   
 $VP \rightarrow V NP_o$

<sup>7</sup>There are several other natural language parsers in the literature which, although they are not necessarily based on context free rules, still lack the ability to handle free word order. I discuss them briefly in the concluding chapter.

However, this grammar suffers from inadequate coverage. Even removing the ordering of the elements of the right hand side, the grammar does not generate either of the sentence schemata found in (6).

- (6)  $V NP_s NP_o$   
 $NP_o NP_s V$

My solution for the problem of parsing free word order is based on Government-Binding (GB) theory.<sup>2</sup> GB is a linguistic theory that is concerned with the syntax of a single sentence. The structures that it generates will, if it is correct, make the important linguistic information explicit. However, GB is not a computational theory. It does not specify how parsing (or generation, for that matter) is to be done, it only specifies what the underlying syntax is to be. By using the parser in GB, it means that its output is dictated by GB theory, and furthermore, that the operations of the parser follow the methodology of the linguistic theory; this will be elaborated below.

In fact, the parser computes only a part of GB output representations. GB consists of several levels of representation, each of which carries information relevant to a certain aspect of the sentence. The parser produces two output structures based on these levels. Precedence structure (PS) represents a part of so-called Phonological Form (PF), as well as part of the theory of morphology (word structure), while syntactic structure (SS) represents so-called S-structure. The theory behind these structures is quite complex; they will be described in greater detail in the next chapter. For our purposes here, however, we can give an abbreviated description that will serve to show how the linguistic theory provides the proper structures for handling free word order.

Precedence structure is used to represent the precedence information inherent in the input, which I take to be a slightly processed version of the speech stream. It is assumed that the speech stream has been broken down into its constituent morphemes, words, and phrases, upon which there is a total ordering by virtue of the linear nature of speech. PS represents the ordering of the input that is relevant to syntax; thus it is a partial ordering. For example, in the PS for *ngapala-rhi* there would be an ordered pair of morphemes (*ngapala*, *rhi*), as the ordering of the noun followed by the case-marker is syntactically relevant. In fact, it is ungrammatical to reverse the order of the morphemes, there is no such word as *\*rhi ngapala* in Warlpiri. On the other hand, the PS for Warlpiri would not contain relations between the words, because their order does not matter.<sup>3</sup>

The other part of the parser's input is syntactic structure. Unlike PS, SS has no precedence information encoded into it: it is a strictly hierarchical structure. This differs from traditional GB theory, where S-structure is an ordered level of representation. The argument for removing this information relies on Ockham's razor; there doesn't seem to be a need for precedence information at the level of S-structure.

<sup>2</sup>See, for example, [Chom1], [Chom2].

<sup>3</sup>This is also a bit of a simplification. Word ordering within phrases does matter; this is handled by the parser, and will be described in the following chapters. It is really the phrases that may permute. Perhaps it would be more nearly accurate to call Warlpiri a free-phrase order language.

because any ordering that is required may, and must, be represented at PF. For now, we can take SS simply as hierarchical. SS is where such relations as grammatical functions would be represented. Subjects are taken to be the siblings of VPs, and objects are taken to be siblings of V.

Let's see how the GR grammar would account for the simple language of transitive verbs in Welsh. Grammatical function is identified by the case-markings on nouns. For one class of verbs, the subject is marked with the ergative case, often appearing as the suffix *-rhi*; the object is marked with the absolutive case, which is not overt phonologically.<sup>11</sup> As has already been mentioned, case-markers must be case-like (i.e., affixed) to the noun that they mark, and they must be to their right. The nouns so marked receive the case of their case-marker. Verbs must be inflected for tense by tense markers that are enclitic to the stem *eed* to their right. These facts are encoded in the PS for Welsh, as shown in (7).

- (7) P<sub>1</sub> N is followed by U (let word)  
V is followed by T (let word)

The grammatical functions of the *verbs* are represented in SS. As with the improved grammar above, we consider a sentence to consist of a noun phrase, the subject, and a verb phrase. The VP, in turn, consists of the verb and a noun phrase, its object. The SS for the simple Welsh sentences is given in (8).

- (8) SS: S dominates NP<sub>1</sub> and VP  
VP dominates V and NP<sub>2</sub>

Now consider (8) which is an abbreviated version of the sample sentence, (1) above.<sup>12</sup>

- (9) *Yngulis-rhi gwisgo-rhi lloethl.*  
I ERG take NOMINAT becoming  
'I am taking the becoming.'

The PS returned by the parser includes the those orderings relevant to syntax, all of which are intraword, as figure 1.1. In this graph-like depiction of the PS, nodes representing categories are connected where ordering is relevant. Hence the tree connecting the verb stem, *gwisgo*, and the tense element, *er*, for instance. Note that the ordering between the words is not represented in the PS for the sentence because it is not important.

The SS that is returned contains the hierarchical structure for the verb and both its subject and object. See figure 1.2. Remember that the graph here does not use precedence so it could have been depicted with the subject node and the verb phrase node in the other order, likewise for the verb node and the object node.

<sup>11</sup> The ergative and absolutive cases are the analogs of the nominative and accusative cases found in languages like English. For the purposes of this thesis, there is no significant difference other than in the labeling of the case markers.

<sup>12</sup> In fact, this sentence is ungrammatical because the null auxiliary word does not agree with object of the sentence. More details of the auxiliary will be given below.



Figure 1.1: The PS for (9)



Figure 1.2: The SS for (9)

This bipartite representation also handles fixed word order, as in English.<sup>12</sup> In English, there are no overt case-markers for the subject or the object. Instead, the subject precedes the verb and the object follows. In this sense the verb itself acts as the case-marker. The noun phrase to its left is marked for nominative case, and the noun phrase to its right is marked for accusative case. As with Warlpiri, the verb is inflected for tense with a tense element that is intrinsic to the verb stem and to its right. These facts are given in (10) which is the PS for this simple subset of English.

- (10) PS     $N_{nom}$  is followed by V (Inferword)  
                $N_{acc}$  is preceded by V (Intraword)  
               V is followed by T (Intraword)

As with Warlpiri, the grammatical functions of the noun phrases are represented in SS. In fact, the SS for English is the same as that for Warlpiri. The only difference concerns the mapping from case to grammatical function. In English, the noun phrase marked for nominative case is mapped to subject, and the noun phrase marked for accusative case is mapped to object. The SS for the simple English is given in (11).

- (11) SS    S dominates  $NP_s$  and VP  
               VP dominates V and  $NP_o$

The rough translation of (9) is given in (12). Let's examine the two structures retained by the parser for this sentence. The first, PS, encodes the ordering relations that are syntactically relevant, see figure 13. As stated in the PS for this subset of English, the verb stem must be followed by a tense element, in this case -ing. For now we will ignore the modal verb *am* as it is part of the auxiliary, which is not being covered by the simple grammar. The other part of the PS concerns the subject and object noun phrases, *I* and the *boomerang*, respectively. Note that in PS the verb, *taking*, is connected to the noun phrases as their relative ordering is relevant.

- (12) I am taking the boomerang.

The SS that is retained contains the bipartite structure for the verb and both its subject and object. See figure 14. It is equivalent to the SS for the Warlpiri sentence, as one would expect. Both sentences are saying the same thing, at least as far as the rough translation goes. Inasmuch as the meanings are equivalent we would expect to see identical syntactic structures, which the parser does indeed provide.

The difference between the so-called free word order language, Warlpiri, and the fixed word order language, English, then, is *why* that or not the predicator (for these simple sentences it is the verb) is also a case marker. In both languages—and, it is believed, in all languages—case marking is a directed relation. In Warlpiri, this

<sup>12</sup>The parser has not yet been tailored for English. The structures presented here are extrapolated from the theory underlying the parser and its performance on comparable Warlpiri phenomena.

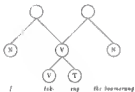


Figure 1.3: The PS for (12).

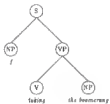


Figure 1.4: The SS for (12).

type of case-marking is performed by clitics, and in English by words. When the predicator is the case-marker, there is an ordering relation between the predicator and its arguments; when it is not, there is no such ordering relation. This distinction is directly reflected in the two output structures. It is only a question of which elements in PS perform the ordered action of case-marking. The syntactic relation of grammatical function—represented in SS—is unordered in both cases.

The terms “free order” and “fixed order” are a bit misleading, however. As noted above, Warlpiri does exhibit some ordering phenomena, for instance, among the morphemes of a word, and among the words of a phonological phrase. At the same time, English exhibits some free order. One common example is the ordering of prepositional phrases. Consider the sentences in (13) and (14) which mean essentially the same thing.

(13) I went to the store with Mary.

(14) I went with Mary to the store.

Prepositional phrases can be processed quite easily by the parser. The ordered relation between the preposition and its object noun phrase is given in PS, shown in (15). The preposition is a case-marker, marking its object for its own case.

(15) PS: P is followed by NP (interword)

Syntactically speaking, prepositional phrases function as objects of the main verb, so, like object noun phrases, they are dominated by the VP node in SS.

(16) SS: VP dominates PP

The PSs for the sample sentences are given in figures 3.5 and 3.6. Note that the relevant ordering of the prepositions to the object noun phrase is, indeed, represented here, while the ordering of the verb and the prepositional phrase is not. The SS for both of the sentences is shown in figure 3.7.



Figure 3.5 The PS for (13).

The mixture of fixed and free order seems to hold across languages. No language exhibits entirely free or fixed order; rather, languages lie along a spectrum where

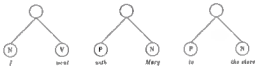


Figure 1.6: The FS for (14).

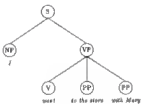


Figure 1.7: The SB for (13) and (14).



Warlpiri sits at one end and English at the other. This lends support for a bipartite representation that permits processing of both. The difference in processing particular languages will be reflected in which structure does which part of the parsing job. In more ordered languages, more of the ordering in PS will be relevant to syntax, in less ordered languages, less of the ordering will be important. In both cases, the syntactic structure will bear the responsibility for representing the grammatical function of the elements, as well as other syntactic relations.

Processing free- and fixed-order phenomena are not the only accomplishments of the parser. The contributions of the thesis are listed briefly in table 1.1. The parser joins a new and growing class of natural language parsers based on Government-Binding theory.<sup>12</sup> A major task of this thesis was to precisely formulate GB theory in order to be able to compute its representations. In this process, I found it necessary to modify the theory of S-structures (explained below) to account for free word order. Given this account, the next task was to formulate a set of representations and algorithms that would compute the mapping from input sentences to output structures. Lastly, I implemented this design, and tested it on a range of inputs, both grammatical and ungrammatical, to ensure that it handled the phenomena properly.

- based the parser on Government-Binding theory
- modified the theory of S-structure
- designed the representations and algorithms
- implemented and tested the parser

Table 1.1: The contributions of the thesis

Before introducing the parser formally, in the following section I outline the Warlpiri phenomena that the parser has to handle.

## 1.1 A Warlpiri Primer

While there are over 2500 native speakers of Warlpiri, few of them will read this thesis. Therefore, it is useful to introduce some basic Warlpiri. If you are fluent in Warlpiri, feel free to skip to the next section.

### 1.1.1 The Major Parts of Speech

This primer begins with a discussion of the three major parts of speech: nouns, verbs, and auxiliaries. The analysis of nouns and verbs is relatively straightforward, but the auxiliary is more complicated. I begin with nouns.

Nouns must be declined, with the case marker suffixing onto the noun. There are three syntactic cases in Warlpiri: ergative, absolutive, and dative. (17) gives

<sup>12</sup>There are a number of parsers based on other linguistic theories. There are also a handful of GB-based parsers. I discuss these other facts in the concluding chapter.

some examples of declined nouns. (a) shows a noun marked for dative case. (b) shows a pronoun, which is declined just as nouns are. (c) shows a noun marked for obviative case; there is no overt marker of this case.

- (17) a. *Aradu-in*  
child-DAT  
'child' marked for dative case  
b. *ngayadu-rin*  
I-ERG  
'I' marked for ergative case  
c. *Arin*  
boomerang  
'boomerang' marked for obviative case

Nouns may be declined for number, in addition to case. There are four number-markers in Warlpiri: singular, dual, plural,<sup>14</sup> and plural. Both dual and plural have overt phonological elements which appear just after the noun, enclitic to it. (18) is an example of a noun that is overtly marked for number.

- (18) *Aradu-ngaru-in*  
child DUAL-DAT  
'to/from the two-children'

Verbs must be inflected for tense and mood. This is accomplished by suffixing a tense element (which contains both tense and mood information) onto the verb. There are five tenses in Warlpiri: non-past, past, present, future, and presentational. There are also five conjugation classes in Warlpiri, so there are a total of 25 inflections for verbs.<sup>15</sup> (19) presents a couple of examples of inflected verbs.

- (19) a. *ngarda-ngu*  
take-NONPAST  
'is taking'  
b. *ngu-ngu*  
see-PAST  
'saw'

The auxiliary word is analogous to the auxiliary verb system in English. Warlpiri's auxiliary consists of several component morphemes, each of which is optionally uttered. The first component is a complementizer which is null (i.e., not uttered) for the simple declarative sentences that are the domain of the parser. The second component contains aspect information that combines with the tense and mood on

<sup>14</sup>The plural suffixing is for definite plural reference, when the referents are present during the utterance of the sentence. It would be used in the translation of 'Those several men [pointing] are whirling boomerangs.' The plural suffixing is for indefinite plural reference. This would be used in the translation of 'Children play by the water hole.'

<sup>15</sup>See (Nash) for a complete table of tense elements.

the verb. The last component contains personal agreement information that combines with the subject and object of the verb. (20) shows an auxiliary indicating that the aspect is *-imperfect*, that the subject is *first-person singular*, and that the object is *third-person singular in the dative case*.<sup>16</sup> This form of the imperfective, *ku*, may be used only with the non-past tense.

- (20) *ku-roo-ria*  
 IMPERF-1s-3d  
*imperfective aspect with first-person singular subject and dative object*

When an element of the auxiliary is not uttered it does not wash from the sentence. Instead, there is a default meaning for each of the components. As mentioned above, the default value for the complementizer position is null. This contrasts with other, overt complementizers that can appear, such as the negative that has scope over the entire sentence. When the base is not uttered, the auxiliary is given a *perfective aspect*, which combines with the tense as the verb, as with overt bases. The nominal agreement (clitic) defaults to *third-person, singular*. The null auxiliary, given in (21), is interpreted as containing *perfective aspect* and *third person, singular agreement*.

- (21)  $\phi$   
*perfective aspect with third person, singular subject and object*

### 1.1.2 Case Phrases

Before discussing case phrases, a bit more Warlpiri phonology must be introduced. As far as concerns the parser there are four levels of phonological grouping present within a sentence. The lowest level consists of morphemes, the indivisible units of the input.<sup>17</sup> The next level contains words which are sequences of morphemes. Not demonstrated explicitly in the examples so far is the third level, phonological phrase. These phrases are sequences of words and are identified in a straightforward manner with word stress information.<sup>18</sup> In the examples given in this thesis, unless noted otherwise, each word corresponds to a single phonological phrase. The last level is that of sentences; the parser works on only one of these at a time.

Like English, nouns phrases are not limited to a single noun. In Warlpiri, such phrases—actually called *case phrases* as they are identified by their case-marking—may consist of several nouns within a single phonological phrase.<sup>19</sup>

<sup>16</sup>The nominal agreement clitic are listed in two parts. The first gives person and number information. For example, '1' stands for *first-person singular*. The second part is 'd' for subjects and 'o' for objects. Dative objects are marked with 'd'.

<sup>17</sup>Morphemes are not part of phonology proper (rather of morphology). The basic units of phonology are truly phonemes. I have treated some morphological processing which combines the phonemes into morphologically indivisible units.

<sup>18</sup>In Warlpiri, the left-most word of a phrase receives primary stress and the remainder receives secondary stress. Thus, it is a simple operation to detect the extent of phrases based on the stress information present in the surface string.

<sup>19</sup>There are also discontinuous case phrases where different parts of the case phrase appear in phonological phrases separated by other phrases. This phenomenon is not yet handled by the parser however.

The ordering of nouns within a phonological phrase is constrained, mostly due to case-marking considerations. Otherwise unmarked nouns may be marked for case by case-marked nouns in their right within the same phrase; the case-marker in this case has an extended scope over all of the nouns in the phrase, and not just over the noun to which it is co-lexic. (22) gives an example of this phenomenon. *Marbu* is not marked for absolutive case because it appears in the phrase along with a case-marked noun, i.e., *wiri-ki*. It would be ungrammatical for the case-marked noun to appear to the left of the unmarked noun; this is shown in (23).

- (22) *marbu wiri-ki*  
*kangaroo big-DAT*  
 'to/from the big kangaroo'

- (23) \**wiri-ki marbu*  
*big-DAT kangaroo*

The syntax of continuous case phrases is actually a bit more complicated than discussed so far. There may be case-marked nouns appearing before unmarked ones, as long as the latter nouns are marked by a case-marked noun in their right.<sup>20</sup> (24) gives an example. The first dative case-marker, *-ki*, has scope over the first word, *marbu*. The second dative case-marker, *-in*,<sup>21</sup> has scope over the second two words, *pukaripi* and *wiri*. The second word, *pukaripi*, is allowed here because there is a case marker to its right, i.e., *-ki*.

- (24) *marbu-ki pukaripi wiri-in*  
*kangaroo-DAT friendly big-DAT*  
 'to/from the big, friendly kangaroo'

### 1.1.3 Agreement

The auxiliary contains two major components, the base and the nominal agreement clitics. These components must agree with other parts of the sentence in which the auxiliary appears. There are tense restrictions on the base which must agree with the tense contained in the tense element enclitic to the verb stem. The more common bases are given in table 1.2.<sup>22</sup>

The first sentence, (1), provided an example of grammatical agreement of the auxiliary base and the tense element on the verb. The base in this instance was *ku*, that requires the tense on the verb, *ru*, to be non past, which it is. The same sentence uttered with the other imperative base, *-pa*, would not be grammatical, as there would be a tense clash, *ku* (25).<sup>23</sup>

<sup>20</sup>The parser does not handle this type of case phrase: only the simpler form where there are some number of unmarked nouns followed by a case-marked noun which has scope over the entire phrase.

<sup>21</sup>*-ki* and *-in* are allomorphs of the dative case-marker.

<sup>22</sup>A complete list of the auxiliary bases can be found in (Nanté).

<sup>23</sup>*-pa* is enclitic to the preceding word: *pa-pa-ku*, because it is a clitic, not capable of being an *o* word on its own.

base	aspect	tense/ restriction
$\phi$	perfective	(cont)
<i>da</i>	imperfective	non-past
<i>pa</i>	imperfective	past, irrealis

Table 1.2: Common auxiliary base clitics.

- (36) \**Nga-pa-da-ris-pa-ris-pa-pa-ris pa-da-ris kare-da kare*  
 I-ERG-IMPERS 1st-3rd take-NONPAST third DAT boomboom

The other component of the auxiliary is the nominal agreement clitic. They contain person and number information which must agree with the person and number information of the argument case phrases. When no number-marker is present on a noun it may either be interpreted as singular or plural; the information in the matching agreement clitic determines which. This distinction is shown in (26). In (a) the subject, *web*, is singular because the subject agreement clitic is *da*, denoting third-person, singular. In (b) the subject is plural because the subject agreement clitic, *la*, denotes third person, plural.

- (26) a. *Web-ngh-palangu pa-da-ris warla-jarra*  
 man-ERG-33rd speak-FAST 1st-person-DUAL  
 'The man appeared the two languages.'  
 b. *Web-ngh-la-palangu pa-da-ris warla-jarra*  
 man-ERG-333rd-33rd speak-FAST 1st-person-DUAL  
 'The (several) men appeared the two languages.'

### 1.1.4 Auxiliary Positioning

The auxiliary word must appear either at the beginning of a sentence or in Wackernagel's position [Wac92], the "second" position. More precisely, the second position occurs at the end of the first phonological phrase of the sentence or in the second phrase by itself. The auxiliary may either be a word unto itself or appear as a clitic on the last word of the phrase.

There are more constraints on the positioning of the auxiliary. In Waziriri, words must have two or more syllables. Therefore, if the auxiliary has only one overt syllable, *e p*, *da*, then it must be enclitic; hence it must appear in Wackernagel's position, rather than at the beginning of a sentence. There is one exception which is the auxiliary base, *pa*, which is a clitic, and may not begin a word even if it begins an auxiliary with two or more syllables. Note that the agreement markers are also clitics and also may not begin a word (i.e., in the event of a phonologically null base).

The sentence in (37) demonstrates grammatical placements of the auxiliary. In (a) the left most element of the auxiliary, *ruu-ris*, is an agreement marker and

therefore it must be enclitic to the preceding word. In (b), the auxiliary consists of a single syllable, so it too must be enclitic and in Wackernagel's position. (c) demonstrates another auxiliary in second position, note that the first phrase consists of two words. In (d) an auxiliary in first position is shown.

- (27) a. *Ngapulu-ris-rua-ris panta ru kuru-ku kuru.*  
I-ERG-1s 3d take-NONPAST child-DAT boomerang  
'I will take the boomerang from the child.'  
b. *Kuru-ku ngu-nyu woti-ngh.*  
child-IMPERS see-NONPAST man-ERG  
'The man sees the child.'  
c. *Maru woti-in-rua-ris kuru panta-ru ngapulu-ris,*  
kaagaro big DAT-1s 3d boomerang take-NONPAST I-ERG  
'I will take the boomerang from the big kangaroo.'  
d. *Kalulu-nga-ris kuru kuru-in panta-ru,*  
ADMON-2s-3d boomerang child-DAT take-NONPAST  
'You might take the boomerang from the child.'

The sentences in (28) are not grammatical. In (a) the auxiliary, *rua-ris*, appears enclitic to the word in the second phrase. In (b) the clitic, *ris*, begins a word. And in (c) the auxiliary appears affixed to the word in the third phrase; the fact that it is enclitic to the verb makes no difference.

- (28) a. \**Ngapulu-ris panta-ru-rua-ris kuru-ku kuru.*  
I-ERG take-NONPAST 1s 3d child-DAT boomerang  
b. \**Ris kuru-ku panta-ru kuru woti-ngh.*  
3d child DAT take-NONPAST boomerang man ERG  
c. \**Maru woti-in kuru panta-ru ru ris ngapulu-ris*  
kangaroo big DAT boomerang take NONPAST-1s-3d I ERG

### 1.1.5 Argument Identification

There is an important relation between the verb and the case phrases in a simple sentence, namely, the relation of predication. That is, the verb acts like a logical predicator, taking the case phrases as its arguments. This relation is manifested in two ways. Syntactically, case phrases may appear as the subject of a sentence, as well as a direct object and indirect object. This is distinct from the semantic set of case phrases in which they are identified with the different roles which the verb selects. Let's clarify this two-level analysis by considering (1) once again. In this sentence, the ergatively marked pronoun, *ngapulu*, takes on the subject function, *kuru*, the noun marked in absolutive case, takes on the object function, and *kuru-ku*, marked for dative case, takes on the indirect object function. From the semantic point of view we see that *ngapulu* is the taker, that *kuru* is the thing taken, and that *kuru-ku* is the source from which the object is taken. It is important that the parser be able to determine this mapping from case phrases to arguments, shown in (29), as part of the meaning of the sentence.

- (29) *taker*    → *ngayulu* ('I')  
      *takes*   → *kurh* ('boomerang')  
      *source* → *kurdu* ('child')

### 1.1.6 Null Anaphora

The last phenomenon to be covered is known as “null anaphora.” In Wapigiri, case phrase arguments need not appear overtly in a sentence. When this happens, the referent of the missing argument is retrieved from context. Suppose, for example, that the speaker had been talking about his son when he uttered (30), which is the same as (1) with *kurdu*-*ku* missing.

- (30) *Ngayulu rlu ku rna-rlu panta-ru kurh*  
      I-ERG TUPPER-1s-3d take-NONPAST boomerang  
      ‘I am taking the boomerang from him/her/it.’

This sentence would be understood as referring to the speaker’s son, as in “I am taking the boomerang from my son.” Note that not any referent may be used because it must still register with the agreement clitic in the auxiliary, in this case third-person singular.<sup>24</sup>

This section has presented the phenomena that the parser can handle. However, it remains to specify the parser itself, beyond the very brief overview given earlier. In order to understand how the parser is situated in the science of natural language processing, it will first be necessary to outline the methodology of the research.

## 1.2 The Methodology of Natural Computation

The model of parsing proposed in this thesis falls into the theoretical framework of natural computation. In this approach there are four components: the abstract computational theory, the representation and algorithm, the implementation, and the test. The first three elements of this synthetic methodology are described by Maier[Maier2]:

At one extreme, the top level, is the abstract computational theory of the device, in which the performance of the device is characterized as a mapping from one kind of information to another, the abstract properties of this mapping are defined precisely, and its appropriateness and adequacy for the task at hand are demonstrated. In the center is the choice of representation for the input and output and the algorithm to be used to transform one into the other. And at the other extreme are the details of how the algorithm and representation are realized *physically*—the detailed computer architecture, so to speak. [pp. 24–5]

<sup>24</sup>Given the parser handles test case (29) at a type-checking agreement with null anaphora is not actually performed. Instead, the parser simply allows for non-overt arguments.

The last element of the *external* computation approach, testing the implementation, is necessary to provide iterative feedback for the first three elements. In addition to providing the abstract computational theory, the representation and algorithm, and the implementation, one must argue that they are faithful to one another—that the algorithm, in fact, computes the mapping of the computational theory, and that the implementation is a correct realization of the algorithm. Once this is done, the test of the implementation can be said to be a proper test of all three components, especially the computational theory.

How can the methodology of natural computation be applied to the problem at hand? As for the first part, GIL will be used as the computational theory. GB defines the mappings between the sentences and the syntactic structures underlying it. Because the aim is to build a parser, we will be computing the mappings in the direction from sentence to structure. The next step of the solution, then, is to design the algorithm and representation that compute the mappings. After this design must be implemented, and, finally, tested on a natural language. We reply:

As noted above, it is necessary to produce algorithms and representations that are faithful to the computational theory. To this end, I will employ the type transparency hypothesis, as described in [BWS4]:

... the condition that the logical organization of the rules and structures incorporated in a grammar be mirrored rather exactly in the organization of the parsing algorithm. [p. 39]

Of course, not all algorithms need be constructed so directly from the computational theory. This hypothesis is appealing because it minimizes the argumentation needed in order to show that the algorithm is faithful. (Additional, independent support for the hypothesis is given in [BWS4].) By showing that the algorithm and implementation mirror the grammar as defined by GB closely, I hope to show that the solution properly answers the questions put forth in the theorem.

### 1.3 The Abstract Computational Theory

This section presents a brief description of the parser at the level of abstract computational theory. The theory is fully presented in the following chapter.

The task of the abstract computational theory of the parser is to specify the mapping of the input sentence to the output structure. The parser assumes that some processing of the input sentence (i.e., speech stream) has been performed. The input to the parser can be characterized as a four-tiered structure. At the top level is the sentence to be parsed. Sentences consist of a series of phonological phrases, phrases consist of a series of words, and words consist of a series of morphemes. As an example, (1) is given below is the input representation:

- (1) ((((NGA)TUD RLU)) ((KA)RA RLA)) ((PUN)TA RUI)) ((YUSU)KU))  
((KARU))



The structure of the output is given by two legalistic theorems, GB and a theory of the lexicon.<sup>26</sup> One of the goals of GB is to account for linguistic phenomena (mostly syntactic) with a number of levels of representation. Each of these levels is concerned with a certain aspect of the linguistic information contained in a sentence. The idea is that each level represents only what it needs to in order to account for that aspect with which it is concerned; other levels represent the information appropriate to their domains.

This approach differs substantially from earlier formulations of natural grammar.<sup>27</sup> Those grammars consisted of a single set of rules used to generate structures corresponding to surface strings. A string was said to be grammatical if it could be generated by the grammar, and ungrammatical if not. The GB-style approach, on the other hand, uses several structures to generate surface strings, but each is concerned only with some aspect of the sentence. Because more than one structure is used, a sentence may be partially grammatical. That is, it may be grammatical with respect to some aspects of the grammar, and ungrammatical with respect to others. This formalism has an intuitive appeal. Consider (32). Formally speaking, this sentence is ungrammatical, yet it is understandable. If only *went* and *I* were interchanged, the sentence would be completely grammatical. Roughly speaking, GB would represent the partial grammaticality by stating that (32) has an ungrammatical precedence structure, but a grammatical syntactic one (i.e., that case-marking conditions are violated). The grammatical syntactic structure allows semantic interpretation.

(32) *Went I in the store with Mary*

The version of GB adopted in this thesis comes largely from the mainstream work in the field. However, there are many variations of the theory extant, mostly due to the youth of the endeavor. As a result, it draws from some of the GB work specifically focused on Warlpiri and similar languages. The major differences here concern the formulation of the subject grammatical relation, and use of the basic category AUX instead of the more concrete INFL (Inflection). The following chapter on the linguistic theory will point out where the two accounts diverge.

In the development of the parser I have had to make a further modification to the underlying theory to account for free word order. There have been proposals in the literature,<sup>28</sup> but none seemed to work out and still maintain a concordance with GB. The change adopted in this thesis is that *h* structures and the other syntactic structures are considered, leaving them solely as hierarchical entities. This too will be elaborated in the following chapter.

GB is composed of three main levels of representation, phonological, logical, and syntactic. The phonological level is meant to capture the sound structure of utterances, while the syntactic level represents the syntactic relations among the constituents that the phonological level has highlighted. The logical level, while

<sup>26</sup>There are many theories that come under the purview of lexical theory, and there are correspondingly many theories. A good choice is [L&M] and the references mentioned therein.

<sup>27</sup>[Ch&G] is a major work of this era of transformational linguistics.

<sup>28</sup>See [N&M] and the discussion of other theories there.

a necessary part of a more easily complete grammar and highly developed in GB theory, awaits an instantiation in a future version of the parser. The parser computes some of the phonological and syntactic levels of representation. A graphic depiction of the processing is given in Figure 1.8.

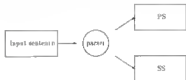


Figure 1.8 The parsing process

In GB the level of phonological structure is called "Phonological Form" (PF). PF represents many aspects of a sentence, such as pitch, stress, and meter. Only a part of PF, namely, precedence and adjacency relations, are used to form the basis of parser's precedence structure. PS represents this information for all levels of the input, morphemes, words, and phrases. By representing the precedence and adjacency for the morphemes of a word, PS also encodes some morphology; yet, it cannot be called a morphological structure, as it also deals with units larger than a word.

The phenomena accounted for by PS are given in table 1.3.<sup>20</sup> The composition of nouns, verbs, and auxiliaries is covered by ordering among morphemes. Word order is used to account for continuous case phrases. Finally, auxiliary positioning is concerned with ordering of a word (or illit) among the phrases of a sentence, specifically, the first or second phrase.

- nominal, verbal, and auxiliary composition
- continuous case phrases
- auxiliary positioning

Table 1.3 The phenomena represented in PS.

The syntactic level is further broken down into two sublevels, S-structure and D-structure, that are intent to capture the syntactic regularities that appear at both a superficial and deep level of analysis. S-structure corresponds more closely to the

<sup>20</sup>Of course, the parser handles but a small subset of Wapiti. The concluding chapter gives us the phenomena that remain for future versions of the parser.

surface utterance, making explicit the syntactic relations of its components, such as verbs, nouns, and the larger constituents, verb and noun phrases. D-structure represents the canonical form of the sentence, which may have several surface manifestations. A quick example will bring out the distinction. Consider the active and passive forms of a sentence, such as in (33). These sentences appear quite different when spoken (or written), but they seem to say the same thing. The difference in appearance would be captured in differing S-structures for each of the sentences. However, the similarity would be captured with identical D-structures for each sentence.

- (33) a. I took the boomerang from the child.  
b. The boomerang was taken from the child by me.

S-structure and D-structure are related by the single relation of movement. The elements of D-structure may move from their original positions to other positions in the structure. This will be elaborated in the following chapter. What should be noted here is that for the parser there is no difference between S-structure and D-structure because no movement is necessary in simple Warlpiri sentences. For this reason, the parser need only compute one syntactic structure (SS), and not two. In more traditional GB theory, S- and D-structure represent *procedures* as well as hierarchical information. Thus, movement is needed to account for either movement in the surface string (*procedures*), or movement in the syntactic structure (*hierarchy*), or both. Because the syntactic structures adopted for the parser are not ordered by precedence, no movement is necessary for permutation in the surface string. The simple range of phenomena covered by the parser demand no hierarchical movement, so S- and D-structures collapse. This doesn't constitute an argument against two levels of syntactic representation, as they seem to be necessary cross-linguistically. However, the parser need only represent one level.

GB consists of a number of other subtheories, each of which defines the relations that may obtain at each of the levels, and the constraints which grammatical structures must satisfy. X theory, for example, defines the structural possibilities in syntax; it gives the basic possible structures for verb phrases, noun phrases, and so on. The theory of government defines a widely used structural relation, government, that seems to pervade the analysis at both syntactic levels. Case theory covers the usage of case, as for example, in the case-marked noun, *kurdu-ku*. The last subtheory used by the parser,  $\theta$  theory, is about the semantic subcategorization of predicates. The verb stem, *punda*, for instance, subcategorizes for three semantic arguments, one for the takes, one for the object takes, and for the source of the taking.

Syntactic structure (SS) accounts for a number of phenomena, as given in table 1.4. Free ordering of phrase is represented in SS, mostly because there are no ordering constraints among phrases in PS. SS is unable to impose any such constraints as precedence is not represented at that level.<sup>20</sup> As claimed in the theory,

<sup>20</sup>It is believed that discontinuous case phrases will also be represented in SS. To handle these phrases, the continuous case phrases with marker case-marking would be aligned to the same argument position in the syntactic structure.

grammatical functions are solely by syntactical relations, so they too are represented in SS

- free phrase codes
- grammatical functions

Table 1.4: The phenomena represented in SS

The parser is also based on a limited semantic theory. The semantics extends as far as interpretation of the syntactic structures is possible.<sup>30</sup> The parser covers four kinds of semantic interpretation, listed in table 1.5. Argument identification is the process of relating case phrases to their argument positions of predicates, which, for the sentences in the domain of the parser, are verbs. Null anaphora occur when there is no overt argument in the sentence, yet there is an understood argument, usually gleaned from discourse context. Because the parser processes one sentence at a time, the argument is only left flagged as referring to something outside the sentence. Null auxiliary components are interpreted with their default values, as described above. The last phenomenon, auxiliary agreement, is rather straightforward. The aspect information is combined with the tense and mood on the verb's tense element, subject to the tense restrictions on the base; the nominal agreement information from the auxiliary is combined with the arguments (i.e., case phrases) in the sentence.

- argument identification
- null anaphora
- null auxiliary components
- tense and argument agreement

Table 1.5: The phenomena interpreted by semantics

Lexical theory provides an account of the information associated with each lexical item.<sup>31</sup> Each item maps to a lexical entry that contains its category (i.e., part of speech), information for its role in both precedence and syntactic structures, and semantic information. This is illustrated in figure 1.3. The information in the item's entry is what determines its interaction in the structures at each of the levels. In PS, for example, the item's classification information determines what entities it can be ascribed to. The precedence part of the entry for case-markers, for instance, indicates

<sup>30</sup>In GB semantic interpretation is actually performed on the level of Logical Form (LF), another level of syntax. As with D-structure, LF is related to S-structure by movement. The simple part of Wexler's that is covered by the paper does not call for any movement in the mapping to LF, so SS may serve for semantic interpretation as well.

<sup>31</sup>This version of the paper does not handle lexical ambiguity, so each lexical item maps to a unique lexical entry.

that they may be *explicit* to nouns, nouns, on the other hand, may not be *explicit* to other items.

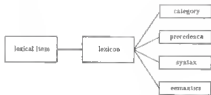


Figure 1.9: The mapping of the lexicon.

The way in which lexical items show up in syntactic structure is more complicated than precedence structure. In PS, each lexical item is entered as a single node in the structure, where it is subject to the rules of combination of precedence structure (e.g., cliticization). In SS, however, each lexical item projects as a lexical structure (L-structure) that represents the part of the sentential syntax that corresponds to that item. The form of the L-structure depends on the meaning of the lexical item. The theory of lexical semantics adopted for the parser divides lexical items into two semantic classes, *predicators* (e.g., verbs) and *arguments*. The L-structure for an argument is simply a node. The L-structure of a predicator, on the other hand, is a structure that has positions in it for arguments. For example, consider (1) once again. In this sentence there are several lexical items. The nouns, since they are not predicative, have L-structures that are simply nodes.<sup>32</sup> The verb, in contrast, is predicative, and thus maps into an L-structure containing positions for its arguments. Those L-structures (and those of the other parts of the sentence, of course) are combined by rules of syntax to form D-structure. This will be elaborated in the following chapter.

The semantic aspect of a lexical entry is, perhaps, its heart. One of the major hypotheses of lexical semantics is that the meaning of an item is large part from its syntactic manifestation. While this work is still ongoing, a number of confirming results have appeared. The parser adopts one of these theories, concerning the syntactic manifestation of arguments for predicators. That is, the argument positions in the L-structure of a predicator need not be specified in the syntactic part of the entry; they are, instead, determinable from the semantic information which encodes a list of the arguments and their types. There is a set of rules executed by

<sup>32</sup>GB provides a fuller account of noun phrases, giving them a projected L-structure due to their predicative nature. In this theory, however, nouns are taken to be unambiguously *inert*. A more robust version of the parser will have to allow for predicative NPs.

the parser that will map semantic arguments to the grammatical functions in which they participate in the syntactic structure. (34) contains some sample rules.

- (34)
1. The agent of the action appears as the subject.
  2. The patient of the action appears as the object.
  3. The source of the action appears as the indirect object.

Consider (1) one more time. The main predicator is the verb stem, *punta*. In its lexical entry is the semantic information that it takes three arguments, a taker, a taken, and a source from which the taken is taken. The taker is the agent of the action, and what is taken is the patient. Applying the rules in (34), the parser determines that the taker will appear as subject, and so on. This was shown in the mapping of grammatical functions to words that fill the argument positions in (2).

## 1.4 Coming Attractions

The remaining levels of description need no introduction, and it is best to simply present them straightaway. The following chapter provides a complete description of the linguistic theory underlying the parser. The design of the parser is given in the chapter, *Representation and Algorithms*. Because the implementation follows the design quite closely, no separate chapter is needed to discuss it. Instead, a few implementation notes are given in the appendix. The appendix also contains a battery of grammatical and ungrammatical inputs given to the parser to demonstrate its coverage of the advertised phenomena. The thesis concludes with an evaluation of the shortcomings of the parser, and a comparison of the parser with similar work in the field.

## Chapter 2

# The Linguistic Theory

Government-Binding theory (GB) and lexical theory comprise the representational foundations of the Warlpiri parser. These theories are by no means complete or well understood, however. As with other scientific theories, they are in a constant state of flux, changing rapidly as new insights are made. In this chapter I will state the particular formulations of these theories that the parser assumes.

Both GB and lexical theory come under the rubric of generative linguistic theory. They can be viewed as an intrinsic specification of the grammatical sentences of a language, much like a logical predicate which implicitly denotes the members of the set of elements for which it would yield true. However, not any statement of the grammar will do. The power of GB and the lexical theory is their modularity and regularity that give them an explanatory punch. The theories consist of a small number of components that combine to make powerful predictions about grammaticality.

In an attempt to explain the universal aspects of grammar (i.e., the features common to all languages), the modules of these theories are stated in a general manner. Even though languages of the world seem to exhibit similar phenomena, they do so in differing ways. So a single theoretical statement can not suffice to account for the varying data. On the other hand, a theory that lists much of the cases serves no explanatory function. GB resolves this discrepancy with the notion of parameterization. The theorems within GB are formulated in general way, yet they are subject to limited parameterization for particular languages. An example can be found with the phenomenon of agreement. In Warlpiri, both the subject and the object have agreement markers in the auxiliary. In English, however, there is only subject agreement (found on the tense marking of the verb). In general, one might state that the arguments of a verb must agree with the agreement markers. The parameter for Warlpiri would state that both the subject and object are involved, while for English the parameter would be set to subject only.

But these theories do more than merely determine membership of a sentence in a language. They also impart linguistically relevant structure to the sentences that make the syntactic information contained in them explicit. One such structure is the relationship between a predicate<sup>1</sup> and its arguments. That is, the theories

<sup>1</sup>Be 'predicate' taken as entity that takes arguments, like a logical function. One syntactic

identify the predicate and its arguments in the sentence, and then determine the relationships between them. In simple sentences, this means ascertaining which word corresponds to the verb and which phrases (e.g., case phrases in *Whisper*) correspond to its syntactic arguments.

The first component of the parser's linguistic basis, Government-Binding theory, contains several levels of representation, concerning the phonological, syntactic, and logical aspects of a sentence. This is shown in Figure 2.1. Each of these levels can be thought of as a different view on the sentence to which they correspond. Looking through "syntactic sunglasses" each of these levels filters out the information in the sentence that does not apply to itself, letting only the pertinent information through.



Figure 2.1: The principal levels of GB

Figure 2.2 shows the GB model of grammar assumed by the parser. The level of logical representation is not shown because the parser does not compute logical structures. While the level of "Logical Form" (LF) is an important component of sentence meaning, it has not yet been dealt with in the parser.



Figure 2.2: The GB model of grammar

instance of a predicate is the verb which may take subjects, objects, and indirect objects as arguments.



The level of "Phonological Form" (PF) represents the phonological aspects of a sentence, such as pitch, stress, and inton. However, only a part of PF is used here. As stated in the introduction, the parer assumes instead a level of precedence structure (PS) that represents both precedence and adjacency relations, as found in the traditional level of PF. Note that PS also incorporates some morphology, as it represents the precedence and adjacency of the morphemes within a word.

The elements of PS consist of morphemes, words, and phrases, as all of these elements may be involved in precedence relations. In Warlpiri, as it turns out, there are no precedence constraints between phrases, so only morphemes and words will be represented in PS. In other languages, such as English, precedence among phrases is important, so they will be manifest in PS.

The syntactic component is the heart of GB as it stands today. As GB is a transformational theory, the syntactic level is composed of two parts, the base and a set of transformations. The base is the set of structures that correspond to the canonical form of sentences, this is represented in D-structures. The set of transformations can be applied to D-structures to yield surface structures (S-structures) that correspond to surface sentences, the sentences that we actually utter. This format offers a perspicuous representation for capturing both the similarity and disparity of different syntactic constructs. One example of this phenomenon was mentioned in the introduction, namely, pairs of sentences in active and passive voice. GB analyzes these sentences as having similar D-structures since they seem to have the same structure at a deeper level. The alternation in surface form is reflected in the differing S-structures that GB assigns to the different voices.

GB claims that there is a connection between PS and the level of syntax; that is, that there are conditions that impose mutual constraints between the levels. This is easily demonstrated. Consider the sentences in (1). The relation between precedence and syntax is systematic: the subject is the first noun phrase, and the object is the second.

- (1) a. John likes Mary  
b. Mary likes John

As far as the parer is concerned the connection between PS and syntax exists exactly where the surface order of constituents has an effect on the syntactic analysis. For the subset of Warlpiri covered, this concerns only the relation between a case-marker and the noun over which it has scope (i.e., those nouns to its left within the phonological phrase). In Warlpiri, case-markers must be suffixed to nouns. When a noun and a case-marker are in such a configuration, the noun is identified as a syntactic argument of the case-marker. Conversely, the nominal argument of a case-marker will appear in PS as a noun with the case marker suffixed onto it, and in no other way. In this instance the precedence and syntactic structures are in a highly constrained, one-to-one relationship.

At this point I must repeat a caveat mentioned in the introduction. The particular formulation of GB presented here is actually an amalgam of three sources. Mostly, it comes from mainstream GB, but there are some parts that find their roots in the literature of Warlpiri linguistics. The third source is the set of specific notions

to GB theory found in this thesis. The main contribution here is the removal of precedence from syntactic structures. Another contribution is the formulation of precedence structure, which borrows from two more traditional representations of GB, PF and morphology. I will point out the differences from mainstream GB as they arise.

The second part of the linguistic foundation, lexical theory, adds two more components to the model of grammar assumed by the parser, as shown in figure 2.3. The lexicon is the mapping between morphemes and PS and syntax. Associated with each morpheme is precedence and syntax information. The precedence information determines how the morpheme is manifest in PS; similarly, the syntactic information determines its syntactic manifestation. Case-markers, for example, must be enclitic (i.e., affixed) to nouns at the level of PS, but at the level of syntax there is no such requirement, as cliticisation is not relevant at that level. Instead, the case-marker is the head (central element) of its phrase, taking nouns as its arguments.

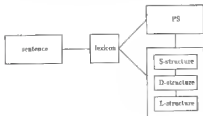


Figure 2.3 The parser's model of grammar.

Syntactic manifestation of lexical items is carried out via lexical structures (L-structures). L-structures are the syntactic structures that correspond to a single lexical item. L-structures are combined to produce the D-structure for the entire sentence. For example, consider a sentence with a transitive verb. Roughly speaking, there are three lexical items, namely, the verb, and its two noun arguments. Each of these items is manifest in syntax as an L-structure. These L-structures are combined with syntactic relations to form the D-structure for the entire sentence.

Before finishing this overview of the parser's grammar, one more point needs to be made, concerning the form of a sentence. The basic units of analysis are taken to be morphemes, rather than, say, more elemental units such as phonemes. It is further assumed that sentences consist of several levels: words, which are sequences of morphemes; phrases, which are sequences of phrases; and, sentences, which are sequences of phrases.

The remainder of the chapter will describe the model of grammar, depicted in figure 2.3, in greater detail. First, the level of PS will be presented. After this is the section on syntax, that will cover each of the sublevels, L-structure, D-structure, and S-structure. The following section discusses the theory of the lexicon. The chapter concludes with a description of the theory of semantic interpretation used by the parser.

## 2.1 Precedence Structure

This section begins with a description of precedence structures. The theory will then be applied to the phenomena to be accounted for with this structure; see table 2.1. The theory works straightforwardly for both nominal and verbal composition, and continuous case phrases. However, the auxiliary is a strange entity, and is not captured as neatly. This section ends with the extensions to the theory necessary to handle auxiliary composition and placement.

- = nominal and verbal composition
- = continuous case phrases
- = auxiliary composition
- = auxiliary positioning

Table 2.1: The phenomena accounted for in PS.

The elemental units of PS, morphemes, are combined by rules into larger structures. PS is recursive in that the resulting structures may in turn be combined by these same rules (an example will be given below). The rules are constrained to operate only on adjacent elements of the structure, ordered by precedence.

Each of the elemental units is labeled with its category, as categorial information is needed in PS. Consider the sample sentence from the introduction, repeated here as (2). The PS for this sentence before having applied any rules is shown in figure 2.4.<sup>2</sup>

- (2) *Nyapula riu ke rae-rie paats-rie kanda-ku kark.*  
 I-ERG IMPERF-1st-3rd take-NONPAST child DAT hommerang  
 'I was taking the hommerang from the child.'

The basic rule for PS is combination, given in (3).<sup>3</sup> This rule allows any node to combine with any other node. However, there are empirical restrictions on combination. These restrictions are captured by four intersecting parameters. The first

<sup>2</sup>The labels for nouns, case-markers, verb stems, and tense elements are 'E', 'C', 'V', and 'T' respectively. The auxiliary consists of four optional components, the base, the subject and object agreement clitics, and the finite registration (fmr), labeled 'E', 'S', 'O' and 'fmr' respectively.

<sup>3</sup>It is clear for the rule of combination and the parameter of variation are taken from chapters 2 and 5 of [Nas06]. Nash uses the notion of a categorial signature to represent the constraints of combination. The description presented here is largely a reformulation of his theory.



Figure 2.4. The elemental units of the PS for (2).

parameter concerns the direction of combination; *non* node acts as the combiner and the other acts as the combinee. The direction of combination is invariant across the language; for Warlpiri, the direction is from right to left.

- (2) Combine two adjacent nodes.

The other three parameters of variation depend on the category of the combinee, and therefore the parameter settings are stated in the lexicon on a per category basis. The second parameter concerns the categorical restrictions of combination. That is, some categories may combine with some categories and not with others. The third parameter covers the assignment of category to the root of the newly created structure. This choice is restricted to either the category of the left node or the right node. The last parameter of variation dictates the phonological level (i.e., word, phrase, or sentence) at which the combination takes place.

We can now account for three of the Warlpiri phenomena listed above: nominal and verbal composition, and continuous *non* phrases. The PS for declined nouns is demonstrated with the noun, *kaŋto-ko*. There are two elemental nodes in the PS for this word, one for the noun, and one for the case marker. The rule of combination may apply because the combinee, *kaŋto*, fits the parameters settings of the combiner, *ko*. First of all, the combiner is to the combinee's left, as required by the language-wide direction parameter. Secondly, *ko*, being a case marker, may combine with nouns at the word level. Finally, we see that the new root is given the case-marker category. The resulting PS is shown in figure 2.5.



Figure 2.5: The PS for *kaŋto-ko*.

Nouns marked for absolutive case are covered with a special rule of PS. In the event of a non- overtly marked noun, PS supplies a null category, the absolutive case-marker. This category must be posited because the absolutive case, like the other

syntactic cases, marks the noun to which it is expletic, and the preceding nouns in the phonological phrase (see below). The PS for the absolutive argument of the sample sentence, *karli*, is depicted in figure 2.6



Figure 2.6 The PS for *karli*

The PS for inflected verbs is also accounted for by the parameterised rule. The difference here concerns the combiner, which is the tense element. It combines with verb stems rather than nouns, and the resulting category of the combination is verb instead of tense element. The difference in transmission of category is due to syntactic effects, described below. The PS for the verb, *panis-rm*, is given in figure 2.7.



Figure 2.7. The PS for *panis-rm*.

The last phenomenon handled by the rule of combination is that of continuous case phrases. Consider the phrase in (4). In this phrase the case marker, *-ria*, has scope over all three nouns. This analysis is grammatical because case markers may also be adjacent to nouns at the phrase level (in addition to the word level, as with the declined noun, above). The PS for this phrase is shown in figure 2.8.

- (4) *ginnix ginnix karli-ria-ria*  
 centipede hummock brave-ERG  
 'the brave, homestead centipede'

There are two well featuredness conditions for PS. The first, given in (5), states that PS must not contain any uncombined structures. However, this condition is too severe for all languages. In Warlpiri, for instance, there are no ordering constraints between phrases and so PS will not contain connected structures between

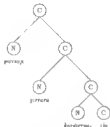


Figure 2.8 The PS for (4).

phrases. The facts are covered with a parameter of variation that dictates at which phonological levels the condition applies. This condition applies both at the word and the phrase level for Wapitri, but not at the sentence level. Thus, the PS for words and phrases must contain single structures, but there is no such requirement at the sentence level.

- (5) PS must be fully connected

This single condition, in conjunction with the parameters of variation for the rule of combination, serves to rule out many types of ungrammatical words, phrases, and sentences that are ungrammatical with respect to precedence. (6) contains three types of ungrammatical words, all of which are ruled out by the well formedness condition. (a) gives an example of a category mismatch: tense elements may not combine with nouns. (b) shows a word with morphemes in the wrong order; because verb stems do not combine with tense elements, the two elemental structures won't be combined into one, and the well formedness condition will rule this word out. (c) shows the verb with the morphemes in the right order, but in separate words. Because the tense element is constrained to combine at the word level, no combination takes place, and the condition rules this one out too.

- (6) a. \*birds-are  
bird NOMPAST  
b. \*are birds  
NOMPAST take  
c. \*birds are  
take NOMPAST

The second well-formedness condition concerns the composition of words in Warlpiri, and is stated in (7). Words that contain just one syllable are not grammatical, instead they must be enclitic to a preceding word. The auxiliary, *ku*, is an example of such a clitic. Note that all nouns and verbs automatically pass this condition, but for different reasons. Nouns pass because, as seems to be the case, there are no single-syllable noun stems.<sup>3</sup> Verbs pass because they must be inflected for tense: there are no null verbs nor tense elements.

- (7) Words must consist of at least two syllables.

### 2.1.1 Auxiliary Composition

The auxiliary is an irregular word. Unfortunately, only a descriptive theory of its composition is available. It consists of a number of morphemes, all of which may or may not be present in the surface string.<sup>4</sup> The parser covers the part of the auxiliary word consisting of the base, the agreement clitic, and the dative registration marker. Their positioning within the word is best given by a template, as shown in figure 2.9.<sup>5</sup>

base	subject	object	dative
------	---------	--------	--------

Figure 2.9 The auxiliary template.

The PS for the auxiliary is also built up with the rule of combination, however, two modifications are required. First, the categorial restrictions of the combinators must allow for the optionality of the elements. That is, the combinators may not have static categorial restrictions; instead, the restrictions must be dynamically determined, depending on the overt morphemes acquired. The template, above, is consulted to determine grammatical sequences.

The second change concerns the construction of the auxiliary structure. Rather than combining adjacent nodes into a binary tree, the auxiliary morphemes are combined as siblings, children of a single parent node. This linear structure is used to reflect the simple template that describes the possible combination of the component morphemes. As an example, the PS for *ku-rna-rku*, the auxiliary of (2), is given in figure 2.10.<sup>7</sup> Note that this auxiliary word contains three of the four possible morphemes, omitting the object agreement clitic.

<sup>3</sup>Of course, this is entirely an empirical point. If it turns out that single-syllable nouns exist, they too would be subject to this condition.

<sup>4</sup>See [Nants] for a more detailed discussion of the auxiliary components.

<sup>5</sup>Other parts of the auxiliary such as the complementizer would be implemented somewhere, their appearance in the auxiliary word can be accounted for by extending the template.

<sup>7</sup>The category denoting the auxiliary word is labeled 'A' for 'AUX'. AUX is a discontinuous part of the UPL of traditional GR that contains AGO and TNS. It is not as clear how UPL is manifested in Warlpiri, with the tense and agreement information spread over the auxiliary and the verb, so 'AUX' is used instead.



Figure 2.10: The PS for *ka-ma-ri*.

### 2.1.2 Auxiliary Positioning

The positioning of the auxiliary is quite unlike that of other words. Roughly speaking, auxiliary words may appear either in the first or second position of the sentence. This special property is accounted for in two ways. First, auxiliary words (with exceptions to be described below) do not combine with *nihm* words. That is, the precedence structures for auxiliaries are inert. Second, auxiliaries are considered to be invisible to the *connectedness condition*, (5) above. Instead, the positioning constraint is best stated with respect to its place in the sentence as a whole. This *well-formedness condition* is given in (8).

- (8) The auxiliary must appear in either the first or second position.

For example, consider the positioning of the auxiliary word in the PS for the sample sentence, (2), shown in figure 2.11. As mentioned above, the first two words of this sentence are contained in a single phrase. Because auxiliaries do not combine with other words, the PS for the phrase consists of two structures, one for *apayda-ri* and one for *ka-ma-ri*. As auxiliaries are exempt from the *connectedness condition*, this phrase is not considered ill formed. The positioning is checked, however, by the auxiliary positioning condition, which this PS passes, as the auxiliary word is the second structure.



Figure 2.11: The PS for (2).

Some auxiliary *roots*, in fact, combine with other words. The exceptions consist of the auxiliaries that begin with a *rih* morpheme: they must be enclitic to a preceding word. The auxiliary base, *-da*, as well as the agreement markers and



the dative registration marks, are all clitics. Auxiliary cliticization differs from normal cliticization (e.g., as with case markers) in two respects. First, auxiliaries do not have any categorical restrictions on their combinability. Second, as with non-clitic auxiliaries, no combination of structures takes place because their boundaries are also invisible to the connectedness condition.

A grammatical example of the use of a clitic auxiliary is given in (8). This sentence is just like the sample sentence, except that it is lacking the imperative base, *ka*. Because the auxiliary word begins with an agreement marker, it must be enclitic to the preceding word, which it is. The PS for this sentence is shown in figure 2.12.

- (8) *Ngayulu-riku-rnu-ria panti-rni kardu-ku kark*  
 I-ACC-1s take-IMPAST child-DAT boomerang  
 'I will take the boomerang from the child.'

Before finishing the discussion of auxiliary positioning, a couple of points should be mentioned. First, note that the requirement the clitic auxiliary must appear in the second position follows from the requirement that these words be enclitic to a word, and that auxiliaries must appear in either the first or second position (following the well formedness condition, above). The positioning of short auxiliaries (i.e., those consisting of a single syllable) is also accounted for here. By the conditions stated above, such auxiliaries must be enclitic, and so their positioning is similarly handled.



Figure 2.12. The PS for (8)

## 2.2 Syntax

This section describes the syntactic component of GB. There are three levels of representation within this component, L-structure, D-structure, and S-structure. Both L-structure and D-structure represent the syntactic manifestation of predicative relations. L-structure is concerned with the predicative nature of individual lexical items, while D-structure contains the minimum of the sentence as a whole. In fact, it constructed as a combination of constituent L-structures. S-structure, on the other hand, is concerned in part with case-marking relations between case-markers and their arguments. But these two syntactic views are not orthogonal: there is

a tightly constrained relationship between them, given by the mapping from one representational level to another.

An important idea behind these linguistic structures is the notion of *licensing*. The structures contain different elements, some of which allow for the sentence of others by licensing them. A prime example of licensing concerns the predictor and its arguments. The presence of an argument in a sentence is due solely to the predictor. At D-structure this licensing concerns the assignment of semantic roles to arguments, only those roles that are part of the predictor's meaning are licensed in the structure. At S-structure, the licensing is for case-marking. As with D-structure, only those arguments selected by the predictor are licensed for case.

Consider the sample sentence, (2). The predictor is the verb stem, *posla*, which, due to its meaning, licenses three arguments, the *taken*, the *takes*, and the *source* from which the *taken* is *taken*. *Posla* licenses these positions in D-structure for its arguments. In S-structure, the verb licenses three case phrases (in this instance, marked for negative, absolutive, and dative case). These licensed arguments appear in the sentence as three case-marked nouns.

All three syntactic levels have the same basic form and contain the same basic entities, i.e., syntactic categories. Their structure is given by X-theory, described in the following section. Following this discussion comes a description of each of the sublevels and the mappings between them.

### 2.2.1 X-theory

X-theory gives the structure of the syntactic representations of GB. The main idea behind this theory is that each basic item (e.g., noun or verb) is the central element of its own phrase, and that the structure of a sentence consists of a combination of these structures. The central elements are called *heads*, and the structures of which they form the core are called *projections*. The head *projects* some number of levels to form the projection. The highest level of the projection is called the *maximal projection*.

A major claim of X-theory is that the same structure schema applies to all categories; all phrases (e.g., noun phrases and verb phrases) are assumed to have roughly the same structure. The number of levels in the projection is parameterized as a per category basis, however. Lexical items, such as nouns and verbs, project two levels;<sup>6</sup> other items, such as case-markers, project one. The auxiliary projects two levels, as explained below. For example, the X-structure for verb phrases is depicted in figure 2.13. As with PS, the syntactic structures of X-theory are depicted with nodes connected by links; the level of projection is indicated with the number of bars above the categorical label.

The purpose of the projections is to create slots in the structures for the attachment of other projections. These slots are maximal as siblings of the non-maximal projections. The siblings of the head are called *complements*, and the sibling of the first-level projection (for two level projections) is called the *specifier*. These siblings

<sup>6</sup>In this implementation, nouns do not project any levels; they are left as zero-level nodes. This was done because the parser does not yet cover the predicative use of nominal expressions.



Figure 2.13: The projection for a verb phrase.

in general are called *arguments*.  $\bar{X}$ -theory further states that the arguments of a projection must themselves be maximal projections. This is diagrammed in figure 2.14 with a two-level projection.



Figure 2.14: A two level projection and its arguments.

But there is a problem with the traditional theory.  $\bar{X}$ -theory states that  $\bar{X}$ -structures are ordered by precedence, in addition to hierarchy. How can we account for the free word ordering if the syntactic structures are ordered by precedence? Some perfectly grammatical sentences would be assigned ill formed structures, having crossing arcs (e.g., when a complement precedes the specifier). The version of  $\bar{X}$  theory presented here is not ordered by sibling precedence. Instead, only the dominance relations are represented, what ordering there is among surface constituents is represented in PS. In line with Occam's razor, syntactic structures need not represent precedence because precedence must be contained in PS to account for the linearity inherent in its level of representation. Though the depiction of syntactic structures must be shown flattened on a page with a direction among the constituents

nodes, it should be remembered that no ordering is implied (i.e., subtrees could be on either side).

Before entering a discussion of the syntactic levels themselves, this section presents two theorems that apply to  $\bar{X}$ -structures. First, the central structural relation of  $\bar{X}$  theory, government, is defined. The section concludes with the structural definition of the grammatical functions, subject and object.

### Government Theory

The government relation has been found to be useful in explaining many syntactic phenomena, such as  $\theta$  assignment and case assignment (explained below). Government is based on the more basic relation of *c-command* (taken from [vRW80]; cf. [Ch81]):

*C-command.* A *c-commands* B if and only if the first branching node dominating A also dominates B, and A does not itself dominate B. (p. 142)

For examples of *c-command*, consider figure 2.14 again. The head *c-commands* each of its complements, and, in fact, the complements *c-command* the head. The first level projection *c-commands* the specifier, and vice versa.

*C-command*, in turn, is used to define government (also taken from [vRW80]):

*Government.* X governs Y if and only if Y is contained in the maximal  $\bar{X}$  projection of X,  $X^{max}$ ;  $X^{max}$  is the smallest maximal projection containing Y; and X *c-commands* Y. (p. 291)

Only non-maximal projections may act as governors ('X' in the definition above).<sup>2</sup> Again referring to figure 2.14, we see that only the specifier and complements are governed, and that their sole governors are the first-level projection and the head, respectively.

### Grammatical Functions

Grammatical functions are defined in terms of their  $\bar{X}$  positions.<sup>3</sup>

*Subject* the sibling of the one-level projection,  $\bar{X}$ , i.e., the specifier

*Object* a sibling of the zero-level projection, X, i.e., a complement

While there may be any number of objects, as dictated by other aspects of grammar, there may only be a single subject. In fact, predicates are required to have a subject, as assumed by Extended Projection Principles (taken from [Ch86]):

<sup>2</sup>This differs slightly from a more standard notion of *proper governor* which may only be heads. The difference arises from the particular analysis of Walcott, where first-level projections must act as governors.

<sup>3</sup>From these definitions of many core grammatical functions are unnecessary as they coincide with  $\bar{X}$  theory argument positions. However, the definition of subject for languages like English does differ (see [vRW4], for example). To maintain generality the notion of grammatical function is kept distinct. Of course the dichotomy between languages needs to be worked out.

*Extended Projection Principle.* the requirement that clauses have subjects -- [p. 116]

The notions of subject and object are motivated by control phenomena. Control theory attempts to explain the interpretation of the implicit argument that is present in infinitival subordinate clauses. This phenomenon is best introduced by way of an example. (10) below (from [Hal83]) shows two examples of subject control. In instances of subject control the implicit subject of the subordinate clause is understood to be co-referent with the subject of the matrix clause. The presence of the subject-control complementiser, *karru*, attached to the embedded verb, indicates that these sentences are instances of subject control. It is appropriate to refer to the notion of grammatical functions, rather than case, because both subject cases (ergative and absolutive) appear in this construction.

- (10) a. *Ngarra-nghu ka parlaya jarrpa-rn karli jarru-rnaya-karru-ru.*  
 manERG IMPERF corroborate song NONPAST boomering  
 (him-3SG-COMP-ERG)  
 'The man is singing a corroborate song while boomering the boomering.'  
 b. *Karru ka-ya wangka-mi parla karli-nga karru*  
 woman IMPERF-1st speak-NONPAST 3rd dig-IMP-COMP  
 'The woman is speaking to me while digging vams.'

Paralleling the subject control examples are examples of object control (also from [Hal83]), given in (11). Object control is the phenomenon where the object of the matrix clause, not the subject, is understood to be co-referent with the subject of the subordinate clause. The object-control complementiser, also attached to the embedded verb, is *karru*. Again, it is proper to employ grammatical functions instead of case because both objective cases (absolutive and dative) are used in this type of sentence.

- (11) a. *Parla-nga-nga ka-rna-nyhu wangka-nga-karru.*  
 3rdsg perceive NONPAST 1st-2nd speak IMP-COMP  
 'I hear you speaking.'  
 b. *Ngarra-pala ka-rna-jana nga-nyhi parli-minya-karru.*  
 man-PAUCAL IMPERF-1st-3rd see-NONPAST kangaroo appear IMP-COMP  
 'I see the several men (peering) the kangaroo.'  
 c. *Marla-ku ka-rna-ru wurruku-nga marna nga-rnanga-karru-ku.*  
 kangaroo-PAU IMPERF 1st-3rd stalk NONPAST grass eat-IMP-COMP-DAT  
 'I am snacking up on the kangaroo (while it is) eating grass.'

The control relation is assumed to be a structural one, and therefore the subject/object asymmetry demonstrated in the examples above must be represented in a structural manner. Briefly, this is achieved by placing the subject argument at a higher level in the projection than the object; the subject is associated with the specifier position, and the objects are associated with the complement positions. The choice of subordinate complementiser, either *karru* or *karru*, then dictates where the

subordinate phrase-marker should be attached to the matrix phrase-marker. In the event of subject control, the subordinate phrase is attached so that it c-commands the subject; for object control, the subordinate phrase c-commands the object.

### 2.2.2 L-structure

L-structures represent the syntactic manifestation of lexical items. Each item projects into a single L-structure, which is a single X-projection. As mentioned above, this number of levels of projection is determined by the item's category. However, this is more that determines the particular manifestation of different lexical items. GB claims that part of the semantic content of a lexical item is involved in the derivation of its syntactic manifestation. In particular, the number and type of its arguments dictates how they will appear. The first part of this section discusses  $\theta$ -theory, which attempts to explain the mapping from semantic to syntactic arguments. The other part describes the simple set of rules that indicates where the syntactic arguments are placed in the L-structure.

#### $\theta$ -theory

The meaning of lexical items must contain as a minimum information about the number and type of arguments that it takes. Consider the verb from the example sentence, *prints*. Part of what we know about taking is that there is a taker, a thing which is taken, and a source from which the taken is taken. Of course, there is more meaning, but this much seems minimally necessary.

$\theta$ -theory<sup>11</sup> is concerned with capturing the nature of these semantic arguments and how they appear in syntax. Arguments are called  $\theta$ -roles (thematic roles). Although the theory of  $\theta$ -roles is still quite fuzzy, a few rules seem to crop up repeatedly. The most common of these are AGENT, the performer of an action, THEME, the object affected by an action, and PATR, the source or goal of an action.

A predicate is said to select a number of  $\theta$ -roles. The list of  $\theta$ -roles that a predicate selects is called a  $\theta$ -grid. For example, the predicate, *prints*, has a  $\theta$ -grid that contains three  $\theta$ -roles, AGENT, THEME, and PATR. However, not all combinations of  $\theta$ -roles occur in English. The  $\theta$ -grids that do appear are listed in table 2.2.

$\theta$ -roles appear as syntactic categories that are said to bear the corresponding role. The theory used here assumes that all arguments appear as case phrases.<sup>12</sup> Case phrases receive their  $\theta$ -role under the syntactic relation of  $\theta$ -assignment, under the relation of government. The position in which they receive their  $\theta$ -role is called a  $\theta$ -position. An example of  $\theta$ -assignment will be given in the section below. The list of English  $\theta$ -assignments covered by this paper is given in table 2.3.

Consider the verb *prints* once again. Following table 2.2, we see that both the AGENT and THEME  $\theta$ -roles are assigned by the verb. The verb is not able to assign

<sup>11</sup>See, for example, [Fro84].

<sup>12</sup>This theory is unproblematic as it does not account for arguments of verbs of belief, for instance. These arguments can appear as subjectal relation, rather than case phrases. Their analysis must be deferred for now.

	$\theta$ -grid	example
1.	THEME	ya 'to go'
2.	THEME PATH	yaika 'to love'
3.	AGENT PATH	wariya 'to seek'
4.	AGENT THEME	nya 'to see'
5.	AGENT THEME PATH	parida 'to take'

Table 2.2: The five verbal  $\theta$  grids

assigner	$\theta$ -role
V	AGENT
V	THEME
DAT	PATH

Table 2.3: Warlpiri  $\theta$  assigns.

all of the  $\theta$ -roles that it licenses, however. The outstanding  $\theta$ -role, PATH, is assigned by the dative case-marker, DAT. In order to associate this argument with the verbal projection, the verb must indirectly assign the  $\theta$ -role through the dative case-marker. Indirect  $\theta$ -assignment also takes place under government. This will be demonstrated in the section on D-structure, below.

### Placing the Arguments

$\theta$ -theory dictates how  $\theta$ -roles appear syntactically, and which elements license them. The remaining question to answer is where these arguments appear in the L-structure. This information comes from the mapping of  $\theta$  roles to grammatical functions. That is, the mapping specifies which argument appears as the subject, and which arguments appear as objects.

The mapping to grammatical function is mediated by the distinction between *external* and *internal*  $\theta$  roles [Wilts]. In the standard form of the theory, the external  $\theta$ -role is assigned its role outside the maximal projection of the predicator, and internal  $\theta$ -roles are assigned their roles within the maximal projection. Unfortunately, there is no solid theory explaining which  $\theta$ -roles are external and which are internal. For Warlpiri there is a simple rule that dictates which  $\theta$ -role of a  $\theta$  grid will be external:

*External  $\theta$ -role* If the AGENT  $\theta$  role is selected, then it is the external  $\theta$ -role, otherwise the THEME is

The theory of external and internal  $\theta$  roles differs slightly for the analysis of Warlpiri [Hall83]. The external  $\theta$  role rather than being assigned outside the grid

erator's projection, is taken to appear in the subject position, and therefore it is also assigned internally. Internal  $\theta$  roles are assigned within the projection, and in fact appear as objects.

There is one question that arises: why talk about the subject/object distinction when there is a one-to-one mapping with the external/internal distinction required by  $\theta$ -theory? That is, the notions of subject and object seem to be redundant. As Williams[Will4] has pointed out, the external  $\theta$  role does not always map to the specifier position in the verb phrase (Warple's subject position). In English, for example, the subject noun phrase is analyzed as the specifier of the projection of INFL. While in Warple's subject phrase, *assigned*, appears as the specifier of the verb phrase, we need the distinction between grammatical function and external/internal  $\theta$ -role in order to maintain cross-linguistic generalization.

As an example L-structure, consider the verb stem, *point*. Its L-structure is shown in figure 2.15. Following the rule above, we note that its agent  $\theta$  role will appear as the subject, and that the others will appear as objects. As shown in table 2.3, the verb stem itself assigns both the agent and theme  $\theta$  roles, *points* their appearance in the verbal projection. The level at which they appear is dictated by their grammatical function.



Figure 2.15 The L-structure for *points*.

Mining from the L-structure for *points* is the path  $\theta$ -role. This argument is assigned by the dative case-marker within its own projection, as shown in figure 2.16. Note that while the appearance in syntax of this role is licensed by the predicate, the assignment of its role is performed by a different element. The two structures are indeed linked together in syntax, as one would expect; this is discussed below in the section on D-structure.

There is a well known constraint in the mapping from  $\theta$  grids to L-structure, namely, the  $\theta$ -Criterion (taken from [vRW80]; cf., [Ch84]):

*$\theta$  Criterion.* Every chain [i.e.,  $\theta$  position – MDK] must receive one and only one  $\theta$  role. [p. 243]





Figure 2.16. The L-structure for DAT

This principle guarantees that every  $\theta$ -position, as determined by the lexical information associated with the predicator, will be filled with a  $\theta$ -role. It furthermore guarantees that each such position will not be filled by more than one  $\theta$ -role. Observe that this principle has been obeyed in the L-structures for *points* and *DAT*, above.

### 2.2.3 D-structure

D-structure is used to represent the predicate-argument relations of a sentence. D-structures are formed by combining the constituent L-structures of the predicators and arguments.  $\theta$ -assignment and indirect  $\theta$ -assignment license combinations. Note that these licensing relations are themselves licensed by the semantic content of the predicator. That is, the syntactic relation for assigning a given  $\theta$ -role may not be present in syntax unless the predicator selects that  $\theta$ -role.

For an example D-structure, consider the sample sentence, (2), once again. First we examine the core of the sentence, the L-structure for the verb stem, *points*, given above in figure 2.15. The verb selects three  $\theta$ -roles, two of which are licensed in the L-structure by means of the  $\theta$ -assigning functions of the head and first-level projection. The third is licensed by the dative case-marker in its L-structure, as shown in figure 2.16, above. The dative L-structure is licensed, in turn, by the indirect  $\theta$ -assigning function of the verbal head.

Figure 2.17 depicts the D-structure for the sample sentence. We see that the agent, *ngayulu-rni*, is attached as sibling of the first level projection; that the theme, *kurbi*, is attached as sibling of the verbal head, and that the path, *kanyu-lu*, is attached as sibling of the dative case-marker, which itself is attached as a sibling of the verbal head. Every L-structure has been properly licensed because each has been incorporated into the structure.

### 2.2.4 S-structure

S-structure represents a different syntactic view than D-structure, essentially that of case-marking. Case-marking associates predicators with their arguments at the level of S-structure. This licensing relation is parallel to the relation of  $\theta$ -assignment.<sup>13</sup>

<sup>13</sup>For some languages, such as English, the role of abstract case has been proposed to account for case-marking phenomena that do involve an overt case-marker. Abstract case is assumed to account for nominative and accusative case-marking, where the verb assigns these cases to the



Figure 2.17: The D-structure for sentence (2).

This section begins with a discussion of Case theory. After this is a section on the placement of case-marking relations in the structure. Lastly, the section discusses how to represent the auxiliary in S-structure.

### Case Theory

At S-structure, arguments are associated with their predicates via case. As with semantic selection of  $\theta$  roles, predicates determine their case subcategorization, as is the cases that they license.<sup>14</sup> The set of cases for which a predicate subcategorizes is called a *case array*. For example, the case array for *putra* contains all three syntactic cases, ergative, absolutive, and dative. In Warlpiri there are five groups of verbs that have different case arrays, shown in table 2.4. These five classes are derivative from the list of possible  $\theta$  grids found in Warlpiri.

The S-structure association of arguments with predicates is effected in a two-part relation. Arguments—which, for this theory, are only nouns—are associated with a case-marker by the relation of case-marking. Case phrases, in turn, are associated with argument positions in the predicator's projection by the relation of case-assignment. Both of these relations obtain under the relation of government, as with  $\theta$ -assignment in D-structure.

subject and object, respectively. The parser should be able to incorporate abstract case by giving case-marking capabilities to lexical nouns rather than just case-markers.

<sup>14</sup>In fact, the cases for which a predicate subcategorizes are derivable from the  $\theta$ -roles they select. The mapping is presented in the following section.

case array			example
1.	ERG		yo 'to go'
2.	ERG	DAT	yi ŋa 'to love'
3.	ERG	DAT	waŋŋi 'to seek'
4.	ERG	ABS	ŋya 'to see'
5.	ERG	ABS DAT	paŋŋa 'to take'

Table 2.4 The Ewe verbal case arrays.

In Warlpiri there are three syntactic case-markers (ERG, ABS, and DAT), corresponding to each of the syntactic cases: negative, absolutive, and dative. Naturally enough, each syntactic case-marker marks its argument noun phrase for its own case. The case-markers and their phonetic realizations are presented in table 2.5. The list of Warlpiri case-assignments is given in table 2.6. (Note that 'T' stands for 'tense element'.)

marker	case	phonetic realizations
ERG	negative	<i>ngala</i> , <i>-ngala</i> , <i>ŋin</i> , <i>-ŋin</i>
ABS	absolutive	<i>ŋ</i>
DAT	dative	<i>ka</i> , <i>-ka</i>

Table 2.5. The Warlpiri case markers.

assigner	case
V	negative
T	absolutive
OBJ	dative

Table 2.6: The Warlpiri case-assignments.

Figure 2.18 shows an example of the case-marking of an negatively marked noun phrase. *ŋin* is the case-marker and *ngayulu* is being marked for case. Note that *ŋin* does indeed govern its argument, *ngayulu*.

### Placing the Arguments

Case theory dictates how cases are licensed in S structure and how arguments are manifest (i.e., through the relations of case-marking and case-assignment), but it



Figure 2.18: An example of ergative case-marking.

does not indicate where they are to be placed. Specifically, it does not indicate the grammatical functions corresponding to the cases that have been licensed. There is a simple set of rules that determines the mapping between case and grammatical function [Ital83]:

1. Identify the subject function with the **ERG** argument, if there is one, otherwise with the **ABS** argument.
2. Identify the object function with the **DAT** argument, if there is one, otherwise with the **ABS** argument (if this is not already identified as the subject).

Figure 2.19 shows the S-structure for (2).<sup>18</sup> Observe that each of the noun phrases has been marked for its case by the appropriate case-marker, by virtue of their governed status. Observe further that the case phrases have been assigned their case by the appropriate case-assigner. For the ergative and absolutive arguments, the assignment was performed by the first-level projection of the verbal head and the tense element, respectively; for the dative argument, the assignment was performed by the dative case-assigner.

### Auxiliary Syntax

The syntax of the auxiliary is *somewhat* ad hoc, due to its ill-understood nature. Its main function is to combine with the rest of the sentence in two ways: It combines with the tense of the verb to add aspect information; and, it combines with the arguments for the purpose of person and number agreement. The structure of the auxiliary facilitates the combination (which is discussed in the section on semantic interpretation, below). The base is considered to be the head of the auxiliary. The nominal agreement clitics are taken to be its objects, and the verbal projection is taken to be its subject. As an example, the complete S-structure for the sample sentence is depicted in figure 2.20.

### 2.2.5 The Mapping Between S-structure and D-structure

The levels of D-structure and S-structure represents the syntax of a sentence from two different aspects. D-structure is concerned with assignment of  $\theta$ -roles. S-

<sup>18</sup>The auxiliary projection is not shown here, as it will be discussed below.



Figure 2.19: Most of the S-structure for sentence (2).

structure represents case-marking relations. Both of these levels, however, are concerned with the relation between a predicator and its arguments as manifested in syntax. GB posits that the two levels are indeed related, and that one structure can be transformed into the other by movement. That is, nodes that exist in one place in D-structure in order to receive their  $\bar{\theta}$  roles may move in the structure in order to receive the corresponding case.<sup>18</sup> This licensing requirement for arguments is given by the Case Filter [Cho81]:

*Case Filter:* \*NP<sup>i</sup> if NP has phonetic content and has no Case [p. 49]

Movement is allowed by the very simple rule of Move- $\alpha$ , stated in (12) (taken from [vRW86]; cf. [Cho81]).

(12) Move any category  $\alpha$  anywhere

This rule must be restricted, however, so it won't massively overgenerate ungrammatical sentences. One strong constraint is the Structure-Preserving Hypothesis, which in part limits the range of grammatical transformations (taken from [Fro86]):

<sup>18</sup>There are other reasons for movement, such as *wh*-movement. Those phenomena lie outside the purview of the present, as they won't be covered here.

<sup>19</sup>\*NP<sup>i</sup> is the traditional notation for a noun phrase. It corresponds to the maximal projection of N,  $\bar{N}$ .

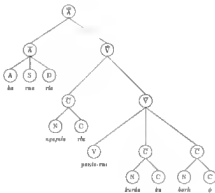


Figure 2.20: The S-structure for sentence (3).

- ... a transformational operation is structure preserving if it moves, copies, or inserts a node  $C$  into some position where  $C$  can be otherwise generated by the grammar. [p. 3]

For the simple phenomena handled by the parser, this really boils down to the movement of case phrases. Following the constraint, the parser should only allow movement of case phrases into S-structure positions that are licensed at D-structure. Roughly speaking, arguments may only move into argument positions.

Another limit to movement is the Projection Principle, which constrains the possible mappings between the argument positions of S-structure, D-structure, and LF (borrowed from [vRW85], cf. [Ch81]).

*Projection Principle.* The  $\theta$ -Criterion holds at D-structure, S-structure, and LF. [p. 252]

This principle ensures consistency between these three levels of representation (for the parser, just the levels of D-structure and S-structure). It establishes a connection for each of the generator's argument positions at each of the levels. Given a case phrase that has been assigned a  $\theta$ -role in a certain position in D-structure, it would be inconsistent for another case phrase to move into that position, in a sense violating the  $\theta$ -role assigned there.

In Warlpiri, however, Move- $\alpha$  is rarely used. It seems that the parameterization of the language is constrained so that Move- $\alpha$  need apply only in a few, select instances. As for the parser, the simple sentences in its domain do not call for Move- $\alpha$  at all because arguments need not move to receive case: the positions where they are assigned their  $\theta$  roles are the same positions where they are assigned the corresponding case. This can be seen for the mapping from  $\theta$ -roles to cases, shown in table 2.7.<sup>18</sup>

$\theta$ role	case
AGENT	ERG
THEME	ACC
PAIRED	DAT

Table 2.7: The  $\theta$  role/case mapping for Warlpiri

This movement need not enter into the theory on which the parser is based. Because of this, the S-structures and D-structures look the same, except for the syntax of the auxiliary, which is represented only in S-structure.

<sup>18</sup>Unfortunately there is no explanatory theory for this mapping. The descriptive theory of this mapping is simply due to empirical studies.

## 2.3 The Lexicon

The lexicon maps surface string entities into their lexical entries containing information dictating their manifestations in both precedence and syntactic structure. A complete entry contains information that is both specific to the lexical item, as well as applicable to the lexical classes of which it is a member. The lexicon contains two structures for representing such kind of lexical information. The first is a mapping from items to entries containing specific information, and the second is a set of rules that applies to classes of lexical items.

Lexical entries contain category, precedence, syntactic, and semantic information. Categorical information refers to the lexical item's part of speech. Included in the scope of the parser are tense, number-markers, syntactic case-markers, verbs, tense elements, and auxiliary components (bases, subject and object clitics, and dative registration markers).

The precedence and syntactic components of lexical entries dictate their participation in the corresponding structures. These structures also refer to the categorical information of the entry. For example, case-markers may only combine with nouns, that is, the category of the combiner is relevant to PS. In SS, the category of the item determines the number of levels of projection.

The last component, semantic information, manifests itself both in syntax and in semantic interpretation. Semantics is connected to syntax through the mapping of  $\theta$  roles to syntactic categories, as well as cases (described above). The person and number of nouns, pronouns, and auxiliary agreement clitics are prime examples of interpretive information stored in the lexicon.

### 2.3.1 The Lexical Entry

Lexical entries contain information for each of the four components listed above. A summary of the individually stored information is given in table 2.6. Note that categorical information is always contained in the individual entry because it is particular to the lexical item.

The precedence information stored on a per item basis is rather small. Verbs and tense elements contain their conjugation class (run to live), which is used during inflected verb analysis. Auxiliary bases contain their number of syllables, used for checking the well-formedness of words.

Syntactic information concerns both S-structure and D-structure. The case marked by a case-marker depends on the particular case-marker and so it is stored in the entry. The case and  $\theta$ -roles assigned by the dative case-markers, unlike what predators, is also stored in the entry.

The semantic component is also straightforward. The person and number information in pronouns and agreement clitics depends on the particular lexical item, so it is stored individually. The same is true for the tense information of tense elements, and the aspect of auxiliary bases.



precedence	conjugation class (verbs and tense elements) syllable (auxiliary bases)
syntactic	case-marking (case-markers) case-assignment (dative case-marker) $\theta$ assignment (dative case marker)
semantic	person (pronouns and agreement clitics) number (pronouns, number-markers, agreement clitics) tense (tense elements) aspect and tense restrictions (auxiliary bases) $\theta$ grid (predicators)

Table 2.8: The elements of an individual lexical entry.

### 2.3.2 Lexical Rules

Lexical rules encode descriptive information that applies to classes of lexical items. Each rule is in a simple “if-then” form. The conditional part tests for membership in a given class, and the action part indicates the information to be added to the cumulative lexical entry if the membership is satisfied. The classes of information represented with lexical rules are listed in table 2.9.

precedence	adjacency requirements directed argument identification
syntactic	case-assignment (predicators) $\theta$ -assignment (predicators) P linking (predicators) projection (predicators)

Table 2.9: The range of lexical rules.

The adjacency requirements for the various categories are listed below. For most categories the requirements follow straightforwardly from the data. The auxiliary relies on the more involved notion of a linear template, as described above in the section on FS.

- Number-markers must be exclusive to nouns
- Case-markers must be exclusive to nouns
- Tense elements must be exclusive to verbs

- Auxiliary words may be enclitic to any word.
- Auxiliary components must be enclitic to each other according to the template given in figure 2.3

The only instance of directed argument identification handled by the parser occurs with case-markers. Case-markers take both the nouns to which they are enclitic and the preceding nouns within their phrase as arguments. This is stated in the rules below.

- Case-markers take the nouns to which they are enclitic as arguments.
- Case-markers take preceding nouns as arguments.

The rules for case-assignment and  $\theta$  assignment were given in the form of tables above. They are encoded here in the lexicon as rules. The other component of the syntactic information dictates the levels of projection for each category, listed below. Verbs project two levels in order to attach slots for subjects and objects. Case-markers project one level as their only arguments are the nouns that they mark. As mentioned above, auxiliaries project two levels, one for the agreement clitics, and one for the argument verb phrase.

- Verbs project two levels
- Case-markers project one level.
- Auxiliary bases project two levels

## 2.4 Semantic Interpretation

The semantic interpretation performed by the parser operates on both S- and D-structures, depending on the type of interpretation involved. For example, argument identification is read off of D structure, using the  $\theta$  assignment relation. Agreement with the auxiliary is checked at S-structure, as the auxiliary is not represented at D-structure. This section discusses the semantic interpretation within the domain of the parser: argument identification, interpretation of null elements (null auxiliary components and null anaphora), and other semantic well formedness conditions.

### 2.4.1 Argument identification

Argument identification is the association of surface string components with the semantic functions that they fill. As this interpretation concerns the semantic aspect of the syntactic structure, D structure is used here. Arguments are identified by virtue of having been assigned a  $\theta$  role licensed by the predicator. Since this information is represented explicitly, the interpretation of the syntactic structure is straightforward. For example, argument interpretation for the sample sentences gives us the results in table 2.10.

# role	word
AGENT	ngujuk ('I')
TENSE	berit ('boomerang')
PATS	kurda ('child')

Table 2.10: The *θ*-role/word mapping for (2).

## 2.4.2 Null Auxiliary Components

As mentioned in the introduction, any part of the auxiliary word may be phonologically null. This does not mean that the corresponding information is missing, however. Each auxiliary component has a default value that is applied in the absence of overt morphemes to the contrary. The null auxiliary base, following the table presented in the introductory chapter, indicates perfective aspect. Null auxiliary agreement clitics have default values of third person, singular. It should be noted that their interpretation depends on the verb's subcategorization frame. If, for example, the verb does not subcategorize for an object, then there is no default interpretation for object agreement.

## 2.4.3 Null Anaphora

In Warlajir some of the arguments of a verb need be expressed by case phrases; an argument need be associated with an argument position in S-structure. When a case phrase is absent from the surface string, the corresponding registration clitic in the auxiliary takes on more of a pronominal character. Such clitics would be translated as 'I' or 'her,' for example. (13) gives an example sentence in which some of the arguments are overtly expressed as a case phrase. In some contexts, this would be the preferred mode of expression, and inserting overt pronouns would give an emphatic reading.

- (13) *Pania-ra-mo-rda*  
 take-NONPAST-3d  
 'I may take him/her/it from him/her/it'

## 2.4.4 Semantic Well-formedness

There are three conditions on semantic well-formedness concerning the licensing of *and* agreement with components of the auxiliary. Note that because the conditions involve the auxiliary, this interpretation is performed on S-structure. The first condition, given in (14), is rather straightforward.

- (14) The auxiliary base must be compatible with the tense of the inflected verb.

As an example of a grammatical use of the auxiliary, consider the sample sentence once again. Table 2.11 shows the tense correspondence between the auxiliary and

the inflected verb. Because the term of the verb meets the tense restrictions of the auxiliary, the sentence is considered well formed from this point of view.

compatible		tense	
base	tenses	argument	tense
be	non-past	rise	non-past

Table 2.11: The tense correspondence for (2).

The second condition concerns the licensing of the agreement clitics. As with arguments, the semantic argument selection of the predicates dictates which clitics are licensed. This is stated in (15). Note that agreement clitics are best formulated in terms of grammatical function—not case—lending more support to the concept of grammatical function (in addition to control facts as mentioned above). In accordance with the Extended Projection Principle (the requirement that predications have subjects), there must always be a subject, so that agreement *rhuc* is always licensed. Thus, this condition really serves as a condition on the appearance of the object clitic and the dative registration marker.

- (15) Nominal agreement clitics must be licensed by the main predicate.

The last condition, presented in (16), also follows from observed data. For example, consider the agreement correspondence of the sample sentence, shown in table 2.12. This sentence is also well-formed with respect to this condition. The subject *rhuc*, *me*, is first-person singular, which agrees with the subject pronoun, *ngaydu*. The object clitic is null, and therefore defaults to third person singular (as described above), which agrees with the object noun, *kards*. Because *kards* is unmarked for number, it agrees with either singular or plural, the corresponding clitic disambiguates between the two.

- (16) The nominal agreement clitics of the auxiliary must agree with the arguments of the main verb in person and number.

GF	clitic	person/number	argument	person/number
subject	<i>rhuc</i>	first-person singular	<i>ngaydu</i>	first person singular
object	∅	third-person singular	<i>kards</i>	third person sing. or plural

Table 2.12: The agreement correspondence for (2).

Note that the agreement correspondence shows a semantic gap in Warlpiri. Because the auxiliary has only two person in it for nominal agreement, there is no

agreement with the third argument when selected by the predicator. This makes it impossible to say something like ‘I take you from him’ without supplying the overt pronoun, *ngun/sa* ‘you.’ (17) shows the translation of this sentence without the overt pronoun; it must be interpreted with a third-person direct object, due to the lack of registration in the auxiliary.

- (17) *Panta-rna-rna-ngku-ria*  
 take NONPAST-3s-2d  
 ‘I may take him/her/it from you’<sup>4</sup>

## Chapter 3

# Representation and Algorithm

This chapter presents a complete description of the representations and algorithms of the parser. The goal of this presentation is to show how the parser handles both free- and fixed-order phenomena. To demonstrate this ability, I will show the parser processing the sample sentence in (1) (repeated here from the Introduction) and some of its permuted variants. Specifically, we will see that the parser derives equivalent syntactic structures, from which equivalent semantic interpretations can be retrieved.

- (1) *Ngaydu-ris le-ma-ris panta-m hard's le dark.*  
I-ERG DEFERR-1s-3d take-CONFAST child-DAT boomerang  
'I am taking the boomerang from the child.'

Ordering phenomena do not constitute the only domain of the parser, however. A more nearly inclusive list of the Warlpiri phenomena that are handled is given in table 3.1. The discussion below will also demonstrate how the parser computes each of these phenomena.

precedence	nominal, verbal, and auxiliary composition continuous case phrases auxiliary positioning
syntax	grammatical functions free phrase order
semantics	argument identification null anaphora null auxiliary components tense and argument agreement

Table 3.1: Phenomena handled by the parser.

When reading the descriptions below it is important to remember which structures are responsible for which phenomena. The phenomena involving precedence

are processed with precedence structure (PS), the syntactic phenomena are handled by syntactic structure (SS). Semantic processing is accomplished with a set of interpretive routines that operate on SS.

The next section discusses the representations of both PS and SS, as well as the lexicon. Section two presents the algorithms, and demonstrates their ability to handle the phenomena listed above. The last section gives a trace of parsing the sample sentence.

## 3.1 Representation

The parser was designed in an object-oriented style because it seems to capture the nature of Government-Binding based processing. Two major objects in the parser are precedence structure (PS) and syntactic structure (SS). The other major object is the lexicon, which is the repository of information for each lexical item. First I discuss the output structures, and then the lexicon.

### 3.1.1 Precedence Structure and Syntactic Structure

Both PS and SS are based on trees. Each node in a tree contains a category label, and data and actions particular to the level of representation. For example, in PS there are actions for combining adjacent nodes. In SS, on the other hand, actions may not use precedence information because it is not represented at that level. Instead, there are actions for combination of syntactic structures such as case-marking and  $\theta$  assignment.

PS is actually an ordered forest of ordered trees. Each tree represents parts of the input sentence where precedence is relevant, such as among the morphemes of a word. The relation between the trees in the forest is not relevant to processing the sentence; however, the ordering is kept to mirror the order of the input sentence. Because phrases are not ordered with respect to one another, the PS for Waripiri sentences will not contain trees with two phrases in them; rather, there will be one phrase per tree.

SS, on the other hand, is an unordered forest of unordered trees; only hierarchy is represented here. The need for a forest rather than a single tree is a bit subtle. Following the GB principle of Full Interpretation—the requirement that every element of syntactic structure receive an interpretation—we would expect that grammatical sentences correspond to a single structure in syntax; that is, that no element be left unattached because it isn't licensed. This is, indeed, a condition of grammaticality, and the parser checks this upon completion of the parse. However, a forest is required because during the parse there may be several unconnected trees corresponding to different parts of the input sentence. This is a key to the processing of free order phenomena. Consider (2), which is a variation of the main example sentence; its input representation is given in (3).

- (2) *Aardu-ku ku-rna-ric napafo-riu kuru pustu-rm.*  
 child DAT IMPERF-3-3 1 EXL. boomerang take-IMPART  
 'From the child I am taking the boomerang.'

- (3) (((NOUNS KU) (KA PHA ALA)) ((MOD JULU PLU)) ((KARYL))  
 ((PHTA HTI)))

In the process of parsing this sentence, which is performed left to right, the parser will reach a stage where it has processed all but the last word, *panda-ru*. At this point it will have parsed the auxiliary word, as well as each of the three case phrases. Because the verb has not yet entered the parse, there will be no way for the substructures to be connected; instead, they must reside separately, as shown in figure 3.1.<sup>1</sup> When the verb does enter the syntactic structure, the arguments may be connected by inserting them into the argument positions of the verb's projection.



Figure 3.1: The SS after parsing four words of (3).

One other difference between PS and SS concerns *projections*. Each morpheme in the input sentence is projected into PS as a single node. However, in SS syntactically relevant parts of the input sentence *project* into L-structures, which may contain zero, one or two levels of projection. L-structures are encoded in SS with the aid of the "projection?" flag that is stored with each node. This flag is true if and only if its parent is a member of its projection. This requires, of course, that exactly one of a node's children have a true projection flag. This well formedness condition is met by the construction of SS, as explained in section two.

An example should clarify the representation. The syntactic manifestation of a case phrase consists of a case-marker that has projected one level, taking the *con-*sistent nouns as arguments. Consider the case phrase in (4). The case-marker, *rfa*, has three argument nouns, *gerrup*, *gerrus*, and *kardirrup*. This is shown graphically in figure 3.2.

- (4) *gerrup gerrus kardirrup-rfa*  
 centipede homosick brave-F33  
 'the brave, homosick centipede'

The parser's representation for the same phrase is given in figure 3.3. The parser displays its results as its side, so that the top of the projection appears to the left. Note that the left most node's category is case, as it is the first-level projection of the case-marker, *rfa*, shown at the bottom of the structure. Note also that the

<sup>1</sup>The syntactic structure for the auxiliary has been glossed as a single node. The details of auxiliary structures are given below.





Figure 3.2: The syntactic manifestation of (4)

projection flag for the case-marker is true, indicating that it is the child of left-most node that is its projection, the other nodes have projection flags that are false

SS

```

projection?: NIL
category: CASE
children: projection?: NIL
          morpheme YIRɛɛɔ
          category: NOUN

          projection?: NIL
          morpheme YIRɛrɛ
          category: NOUN

          projection?: NIL
          morpheme Kɛrɛrɛpɛ
          category: NOUN

          projection?: T
          SS data CASE-MARKED: ERGATIVE
          morpheme rɛ
          category: CASE
  
```

Figure 3.3: The SS for (4).

### 3.1.2 The Lexicon

The lexicon is represented simply as a set of pairs of lexical items and entries.<sup>7</sup> Each entry contains categorial, precedences, syntactic, and semantic information. Entries

<sup>7</sup>As in other languages, Warlpiri does exhibit some lexical ambiguity. However, the parser does not handle this phenomenon. So, it is assumed that each lexical item maps into exactly one entry. This shortcoming is discussed in the conclusion.

contain only the information that is particular to the lexical item. For example, pronouns contain their person and number information, but nouns do not because they all have default values of third person, singular.<sup>3</sup>

Figure 3.4 shows the lexicon used by the parser to parse the sample sentence, (1). Each lexical item is given the category under which it is listed. For example, *dark*, *hurds*, and *nymphe* are all declared to be nouns. Each item has associated with it optional information, which may be either for PS or SS; the information for SS is both syntactic and semantic in nature. This information may come either in the form of data or actions.

A few of the entries are highlighted here; the remainder of this lexicon will be discussed below in the section on algorithms. The pronoun, *nymphe*, is distinguished from other nouns because its person and number information is stored in the lexicon. It needs't have a different category, though, because nouns and pronouns act alike in both precedence and syntax structures.<sup>4</sup> Associated with each auxiliary element is the number of syllables it contains. This information is used during word parsing to check well-formedness: each word in Warpleid must consist of at least two syllables.

Much lexical information applies not to a single item but to entire classes of items. For example, all verbs in Warpleid that select an agent  $\theta$  rule assign ergative case. Since this case-assignment is a feature of all such verbs, it wouldn't be appropriate to store the action in each verb's entry; instead, it is stated once, as a rule. These rules are represented straightforwardly as a list of pattern-action rules. After lexical look-up is performed, the list of rules is applied. If the pattern of the rule matches the category, the rule fires, and the information specified in the "action" part of the rule is added to the ande.

For example, consider the lexical rules that encode the manifestation of  $\theta$  grids in SS. The first set of rules, shown in table 3.2, indicates the number of levels of projection for the L-structures of certain categories.

- || the item is a case-marker  
then it projects one level.
- || the item is a verb  
then it projects two levels

Table 3.2: Lexical rules for projection

The next set of rules concerns the hierarchy of case-assignment actions. That is, those elements must be present in the sentence for the case-assignment action that

<sup>3</sup>Actually, as mentioned in the introductory chapter, nouns have a default number of either singular or plural. Consistency with the agreement rules of the auxiliary determines which.

<sup>4</sup>In later versions of the parser, this distinction may well have to be implemented on the categorial information because pronouns can enter into some syntactic constructions that nouns cannot. For example, in English it is perfectly acceptable to have a noun phrase consisting of a pronoun by itself; it is ungrammatical simply to have a noun. Nouns must either be plural or have a determiner appear with them.

```

(noun
  {KARLEI}
  {CURRU}
  {WGAJULU}
  (ss (date {person 1}
        (number {singular}))))))
(case
  {KU}
  (ss (date {case-assigned dative}
        (case-marked dative)
        (theta-assigned path))))
  {RLU}
  (ss (date {case-marked ergative}))))
(verb
  {PUWIA}
  (ps (date {conjugation 2}))
  (ss (date (theta-roles {agent theme path}))))))
(tense
  {RMI}
  (ps (date {conjugation 2}))
  (ss (date {tense nonpast}))))
(auxiliary-base
  {XA}
  (ps (date {syllables 1}))
  (ss (date {tenses {nonpast}}
        (aspect {imperfect}))))))
(auxiliary-subject
  {RMA}
  (ps (date {syllables 1}))
  (ss (date {person 1}
        (number {singular}))))))
(auxiliary-dative
  {MA}
  (ps (date {syllables 1})))

```

Figure 3.4: The portions of the lexicon needed for parsing sentence (1).

It becomes manifest in the structure (i.e., added to the SS actions of the projection). The rules are given in table 3.3

- If the item selects an agent  $\theta$  role  
then it licenses assignment of argative case.
- If the item is a tense element  
then it licenses assignment of absolutive case.
- If the item is a dative case marker  
then it assigns dative case.

Table 3.3: Lexical rules for case-assignment

The third set of rules is for the licensing of  $\theta$  assignment, as given in table 3.4. These rules also show the path  $\theta$  assigning property of dative case-markers. This  $\theta$ -role is combined syntactically with the predicate's L-structure via the indirect step of  $\theta$ -linking which operates on nodes that have been  $\theta$  assigned.

- If the item selects an agent  $\theta$ -role  
then it licenses assignment of that role
- If the item selects a theme  $\theta$  role  
then it licenses assignment of that role.
- If the item selects a path  $\theta$  role  
then it licenses linking of that role.
- If the item is a dative case-marker  
then it assigns the path  $\theta$  role

Table 3.4: Lexical rules for  $\theta$  assignment.

The above two tables gave rules largely for licensing case-assignment and  $\theta$ -assignment actions. The rules in table 3.5 fill the gaps where the actions are to be situated in the L-structure; these rules determine grammatical function. When these rules talk about being manifested as a certain grammatical function, it means that the actions for the corresponding case assignment and  $\theta$  assignment are both placed at that level in the projection.

An example should help to clarify the operation of these rules. Consider the parsing of the verb stem, *penda*. In the first step of lexical look up, the item's entry is retrieved from the lexicon, the entry is shown in figure 3.5.

In the second step lexical rules are applied to this entry. Looking to the first

- If an agent  $\theta$ -role is selected  
then it will be manifest as the subject
- If a theme  $\theta$  role is selected and there is already a subject  
then it will be manifest as an object
- If a theme  $\theta$  role is selected and there is no subject  
then it will be manifest as the subject.
- If a path  $\theta$  role is selected  
then it will be manifest as an object.

Table 3.5: Lexical rules for determining grammatical function.

```
(POWA
  (ps (data (conjugation 2)))
  (am (data (theta-roles (agent theme path)))))
```

Figure 3.5: The lexical entry for *powa*.

set of rules in table 3.2, we find one rule that applies: verbs project two levels in syntax. In the next set of rules for case there is one rule that applies. Looking to the verb's  $\theta$  grid, we see that it does select an agent  $\theta$  role; according to the rule, the verb therefore licenses assignment of ergative case.

In the set of rules concerning  $\theta$ -assignment three rules apply. *Powa* selects an agent, a theme, and a path, therefore, according to those rules, it licenses  $\theta$ -assignment of all three. More precisely, it licenses assignment of the first two. The path  $\theta$ -role is actually assigned by the dative case-marker; the verb indirectly assigns the  $\theta$ -role via  $\theta$ -linking.

The last set of rules determines the grammatical function of each of the arguments. Following the first rule of the set we see that the agent  $\theta$ -role will appear in the subject position. This means that case assignment of its case, ergative, and  $\theta$ -assignment of its role, agent, will take place in the specifier position. The other two  $\theta$ -roles will appear as objects, so their case- and  $\theta$ -assignment actions will be placed in the zero-level projection of the verb, in filling of the complement position. The computed entry is shown in figure 3.6.<sup>3</sup>

The interaction between licensing, case and  $\theta$  role operations is best illustrated by an example. Figure 3.7 shows the morphological parse for *powa*. The PS component of the output is rather straightforward, so I continue with SS. First notice that

<sup>3</sup>The entry may either be computed as the formal stem is entered into the lexicon, or upon look-up of the stem during the parse. The parse, in fact, takes the former tack in order to save time during parsing.

```

(PUNCT
  (ps (data (configuration 2)))
  (ss (data (theta-rules (agent theme path)))
    (actions (projections 2)
      (license (case-assign . argative))
      (license (theta-assign agent))
      (license (theta-assign theme))
      (license (theta-link . path))
      (specifier (case-assign argative))
      (complement (case-assign absolutive))
      (complement (theta-assign agent))
      (complement (theta-assign theme))
      (complement (theta-link path))
    )
  )
)

```

Figure 3.6. The computed entry for *punta*

*punta* has projected two levels, according to the specification in its projections action. Once projected, the SS parser places *punta*'s syntactic actions in its structure. The actions *specifier* and *complement* place these assignment actions at the first level and zero-level nodes in the verb's projection, respectively. In order for *specifier* and *complement* to execute there must be a corresponding *license* action in the structure. *Punta* itself licenses all but one action, namely, the case-assignment action for absolutive case, which is actually licensed by tense elements. As a result this complement action must await the arrival of the tense element in order for it to fire and place the case-assigning action in the structure. All of the other placement actions have fired, however.

### 3.2 Algorithm

An overview of the parser's operation is given in figure 3.8. Input sentences are given to the PS parser that traverses them left-to-right and builds up PS. Every time a unit of PS becomes syntactically relevant—as determined by the item's lexical entry—the unit is sent to the syntactic parser. The syntactic parser accepts the incoming unit, projects it according to its lexical information, and then enters it into SS. When finished, the syntactic parser returns control to the PS parser which consumes some more input. Upon completing the input sentence, the PS parser stops, and both output structures are returned.

First I discuss the PS parser, and demonstrate its operation with examples that cover the range of phenomena involving precedence. Then the syntactic parser is discussed, again with examples showing its ability to handle the relevant syntactic phenomena. This section concludes with a presentation of the semantic interpretation that the parser performs on the output syntactic structure.

```

                                PS
9: data CONJUGATION 2
  morpheme PUNTA
  category: VERB

                                SS
projection?: NIL
category: VERB
children: projection?: T
  actions: CASE-ASSIGN, EMGATIVE
           THETA-ASSIGN: AGENT
  category: VERB
  children: projection?: T
    actions: THETA-LINK: PATH
             THETA-ASSIGN: THEME
             COMPLEMENT: (CASE-ASSIGN . ABSOLUTIVE)
    data: THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME PATH)
           AGENT: EMGATIVE
           THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
           PATH: DATIVE
           SUBJECT: AGENT
           OBJECT: PATH
    morpheme: PUNTA
    category: VERB

```

Figure 3.7: The PS and SS for *punta*.

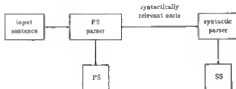


Figure 3.8 An overview of the parser's flow of control.

### 3.2.1 The PS Parser

In the first part of this section I discuss the algorithms of the PS parser. Following this is a sequence of examples demonstrating its range of coverage.

#### The Basic Engine

The PS parser is a recursive engine that operates on the four phonological levels of the input sentence. The top level of the parser accepts the entire sentence as input. It calls on the phrasal parser to parse each of the constituent phrases, and then performs sentential actions on the returned phrasal structures. In a like manner, the phrasal parser calls on the word level parser to parse constituent words. The word-level parser calls on the morphological parser which is essentially the look-up routine for the lexicon. This is diagrammed in figure 3.9.

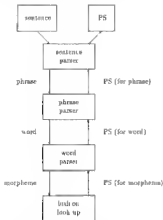


Figure 3.9 The recursion of the PS parser.

Each level of PS parsing uses the same engine. The basic algorithm is given in table 3.6. The first step of the algorithm is a loop that traverses the input from



left to right. Each unit (morpheme, word, or phrase) is sent to the subordinate parser for processing. The structure returned is then added to end of the PS for the current level. At this point associated PS actions are tried to see if they can apply. To aid in the efficiency of processing, the parser employs an auxiliary structure, the set of unsatisfied predicates, that contains every node in PS that has at least one associated action. Thus, step (k) of the main loop consists of a traversal of this set, attempting to associate each of the actions of the nodes within. Note that only the actions that pertain to the current level of parsing are considered.

1. Loop through constituents from left to right:
  - a. call the subordinate parser, then
  - b. execute applicable actions on adjacent trees.
2. Execute default actions.
3. Check well formedness.

Table 3.6. The PS parsing engine.

PS actions are constrained to operate only on adjacent trees in the forest. That is, the actions in a node of one tree may only act on an adjacent tree. More specifically, because Warpi is a head-final language, PS actions may only apply to the preceding tree. Auxiliary processing, however, is a special case. The actions for auxiliary composition operate on the succeeding tree, rather than the preceding one.

The list of PS actions is given in table 3.7. The first module concerns the interface to the syntactic processor. Most lexical items are relevant at the morphological level; for them *project-into-SS* will be a morphological action. When this action fires, the syntactic information of the lexical item is given to the syntactic parser which projects it according to its lexical information and enters it into SS. A link between the PS and syntactic nodes is kept for future processing.

The "normal" actions are used by the non-auxiliary elements. *Select* is the basic operation that causes the selector to become a sibling of its object (the tree to its left) in PS; at the same time, the syntactic counterpart of the object is declared to be an argument of the syntactic counterpart of the selector. This is the mechanism by which directed argument identification is performed. *Selects* is like *select* except that it is not deleted upon execution. This action is used to parse continuous case phrases. The last action, *Inject*, is also similar to *select*, but the syntactic effect differs. Rather than declaring the object to be an argument of the injector, the syntactic information in the injector is added to (metaphorically speaking, injected into) the syntactic counterpart of the object. This action is used both by number markers and tense elements in feature percolation.

The actions for processing the auxiliary word are quite like the others. *Right-adjacent* is used to build up the precedence structure of the auxiliary word

refers to SS	project-late-SS
normal actions	select {category} select* {category} inject {category}
auxiliary actions	auxiliary-adjacent {} right-adjacent {auxiliary category} auxiliary-select {auxiliary category} auxiliary-inject {auxiliary category}

Table 3.7: Available PS actions

The argument of this action is a list of the categories of the auxiliary elements which may appear to the right of the node. For example, both auxiliary object clitics and dative clitics may appear to the right of the subject *illic*, so each subject clitic would contain the lexical action in (5).

- (5) right-adjacent ({auxiliary-object, auxiliary-dative})

The two actions, *auxiliary-select* and *auxiliary-inject* are analogous to *select* and *inject*. The difference is that these actions do not build up PS as do their counterparts; rather, they find their arguments in the set of siblings as constructed by *right-adjacent*. The auxiliary base selects its normal agreement clitics, for example.

The last auxiliary action, *auxiliary-adjacent*, is used for auxiliary cliticization. The usual adjacency routines can not be used due to the strange nature of the auxiliary; instead, this special routine is used. *auxiliary-adjacent* may fire if there is something to its left, but no structure is built up. The purpose of this routine is to aid in checking the well-formedness of auxiliary cliticization.

The discussion of auxiliary parsing is best rounded out with an example. Consider the auxiliary word in (6), taken from the sample sentence. The computed entries for each element are shown in figure 3.10.

- (6) (KA 3MA 3LA)

We start with the lexical parser. Following step one of the algorithm, the parser calls its subordinate, the morphological parser, with the first morpheme, *ka*. That parser computes its lexical entry, as shown above, and creates a node in PS for it. The second part of the main loop is then reached. There is only one morphological action, namely, *project-late-SS*. This action calls the syntactic processor with the auxiliary node as an argument. Following the *projection* action, the node projects two levels in SS. The specifier action also fires because there is a corresponding *license* action in the structure. At this point no more syntactic actions remain, so

```

(CA
  (ps (data (syllables 1))
    (actions
      (morphological (project-into-SS))
      (lexical (right-adjacent (auxiliary-subject
                                auxiliary-object
                                auxiliary-dative))
        (auxiliary-select auxiliary-subject)
        (auxiliary-unselect auxiliary-object)
        (auxiliary-select auxiliary-dative))))
    (ss (data (tenses (nonpast))
      (aspect imperfect))
      (actions (projections 2)
        (license (argument . verb))
        (specifier (argument . verb))))))

(RA
  (ps (data (syllables 1))
    (actions
      (morphological (project-into-SS))
      (lexical (auxiliary-adjacent)
        (right-adjacent (auxiliary-object
                          auxiliary-dative))))))
    (ss (data (person 1)
      (number singular))))

(PLA
  (ps (data (syllables 1))
    (actions (morphological (project-into-SS))
      (lexical (auxiliary-adjacent)))))

```

Figure 3.10: The completed entries for the elements of *ku-rna-elo*.

control is returned to the PS parser. As it turns out, there are no more morphological actions, so the morphological parse of *he* is complete. The PS constructed so far is returned to the lexical parser and added to the lexical PS. The output structures at this point in the parse are displayed in figure 3.11.

```

PS
0: lexical actions AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-OATIVE
AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-OBJECT
AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
RIGHT-ADJACENT: (AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
AUXILIARY-OBJECT
AUXILIARY-OATIVE)

data SYLLABLES: 1
morpheme: 'h'
category: AUXILIARY-BASE

SS

projection?: Nil
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: T
actions: ARGUMENT YEAR
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: T
data TENSES: (NONPAST)
ASPECT IMPERFECT
morpheme: 'h'
category: AUXILIARY-BASE

```

Figure 3.11. The PS and SS after having parsed *he*.

The lexical parser then executes the second step of the main loop. The only node with actions is the node for *he*. However, none of its actions may execute, as there is no argument (i.e., a node to its right) in PS. So, the loop is iterated, and the morphological parser is called for the second morpheme, *me*. It is parsed similarly to *he*, and a second node ultimately enters the lexical PS. When the second part of the main loop is reached again, there is indeed an action that may execute: the auxiliary base is combined with the subject clitic through firing the right-adjacent action. As a result of the previous action, the auxiliary-select action for the subject clitic may also fire. This causes the subject clitic to become an argument of the auxiliary base in a complement position, i.e., as a sibling of the zero-level projection. The two structures at this point in the parse are shown in figure 3.12.

A key point here is how the linear template of the auxiliary morphemes is computed. This is effected through the right-adjacent action. Its argument consists

# PS

Q: category AUXILIARY-BASE  
 children: Q: lexical actions AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-OATIVE  
 AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-OBJECT  
 data: SYLLABLES: 1  
 morpheme: K1  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE

I: lexical actions RIGHT-ADJACENT: (AUXILIARY-OBJECT  
 AUXILIARY-OATIVE)  
 data: SYLLABLES: 1  
 morpheme: KKA  
 category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

# SS

projection?: NII,  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
 children: projection?: T  
 actions: ARGUMENT: VERO  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
 children: projection?: NII  
 data: PERSON: 1  
 NUMBER: SINGULAR  
 morpheme: KKA  
 category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

projection?: T  
 data: TENSES: (NONPAST)  
 ASPECT: IMPERFECT  
 morpheme: K1  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE

Figure 3.12: The PS and SS for *ka-ma*.

takes a disjunction of the possibilities for the surrounding element in the string. The disjunction allows each component to be optional.

The other key to processing the auxiliary concerns syntactic processing. Syntactically, the base is considered the head of the auxiliary phrase, taking the agreement clitics as arguments. This is effected by the auxiliary-select action. Auxiliary bases contain one such action for each of the clitics, and every clitic that does appear in the input string is taken as an argument of the base. Note that this form of selection can not be folded into the adjacency action as with non-auxiliary components because one element effects the adjacency while another (the base) effects the syntactic selection.

The last morpheme of the input word, *tin*, is parsed just like the others. Once its morphological PS enters the lexical PS, it is made adjacent to the auxiliary word via the right-adjacent action of *rim*, and selected by the base, *ku*. The final output structures for this auxiliary word are shown in figure 3.13.

Returning to the PS parsing algorithm, we come to the second step, perform default actions. Currently there is only one default PS action that inserts the phonologically null absolutive case marker. After the phrasal parse is complete, the default action checks to see if the phrase ends with a noun that has not been inflected for case.<sup>6</sup> In this event, a node for the absolutive case-marker is inserted after the last noun, and the PS parser is called once again to execute the actions of the newly inserted node. Consider the absolutive case phrase in (7).

(7) ((TIRRIKJEI) (TIRBAND) (KARDIRUPA))

After the main phrasal loop has completed, the default action will detect that the last word *kardirupa*, has not been inflected for case. Accordingly, it will insert a node for the absolutive case-marker whose lexical information is shown in figure 3.14.<sup>7</sup>

The default action executes the morphological and lexical actions directly, and then reinvokes the PS parser to process the modified phrase. The morphological action causes the case-marker to project into SS, and the lexical action causes the case-marker to select the right-most noun, just as overt case-markers would. The phrasal action, *selects*, selects the preceding nouns, *agras*, just as overt case-markers would. Figure 3.15 shows the results.

The last operation of the engine is to check parse well formedness.<sup>8</sup> The nature of the check depends on the phonological level. At the morphological level, as one might suspect, there are no conditions. The remaining levels, however, do examine the precedence structure.

At the lexical level, three checks are performed. The first makes sure that the PS consists of one tree, ensuring that every element in the word can be adjacent to

<sup>6</sup>This action takes care to ignore the auxiliary word which may be the last of the phrase if present, the second-to-last word in check 5.

<sup>7</sup>The absolutive case-marker is not stored in the lexicon per se. Instead, the node points to the value of a special variable that has been set to contain the data and actions of the case-marker.

<sup>8</sup>In the event of an error, the parser immediately halts and returns an error message, along with the output structures created at the time of the detection. Thus, the parser takes any ill-formedness to be fatal.

# PS

```

0: category: AUXILIARY-BASE
  children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-OBJECT
    data: SYLLABLES: 1
    morpheme: NA
    category: AUXILIARY-BASE

1: data: SYLLABLES: 1
  morpheme: NA
  category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

2: data: SYLLABLES: 1
  morpheme: NA
  category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE

```

# SS

```

projection?: NIL
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: T
  actions: ARGUMENT YEAR
  category: AUXILIARY-BASE
  children: projection?: NIL
    morpheme: NA
    category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE

    projection?: NIL
    data: PERSON 1
      NUMBER: SINGULAR
    morpheme: NA
    category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

    projection?: T
    data: TENSES: (NONPAST)
      ASPECT: IMPERFECT
    morpheme: NA
    category: AUXILIARY-BASE

```

Figure 3.13 The PS and SS for *ha-ma-rin*

```

(ps (actions (morphological (project-into-35))
             (lexical (select noun))
             (phrasal (select= noun))))

(as (date (case-marked absolutive))
    (actions (projections 1)))

```

Figure 3.14 The lexical information for the absolutive case-marker

some other part. There is one exception that allows the second, unconnected word to be an auxiliary word. As mentioned above, auxiliaries are not entered into PS like other words, so this case must be allowed. Auxiliary well-formedness is covered later.

The second check requires that the word (and the optional auxiliary word) contains at least two syllables. In fact, this check need not be explicit for nouns and verbs. In Warlpiri there are no single-syllable nouns, so all nouns, however they are inflected, will pass. Verbs must always be inflected for tense, and since there are no null tense elements, they too will always pass this test. Hence the check remains for auxiliary words, where the syllables of each element are summed and compared to two. This is why there is no explicit syllable information for non-auxiliary lexical items.

The last lexical check makes sure that all clitics are, in fact, enclitic to something. This is implemented by examining the lexical actions for the left-most node of the word. If it contains an unconnected *select* or *inject* action, then it is an unsatisfied clitic, and flagged as such. This check is also performed for the auxiliary word: if it contains an auxiliary-adjacent action, the word is declared ungrammatical and an error is signalled.

At the phrasal level only one check is performed. Like the lexical level, phrases are required to consist of one tree (again, with the possible exception of a trailing auxiliary word). This condition stems from the fact that phonological phrases may not contain more than one syntactic phrase.

At the sentential level auxiliary positioning is checked. The test is simple. On a auxiliary word, if present, must be either in the first or second position. Of course, this not the entire condition, as some auxiliaries are required to be in the second position. But this requirement is taken care of by the cliticisation check: only those auxiliary words that must be enclitic to something are required to be in second position.

The complete discussion of the main loop. When the sentential parser has completed, the syntactic default actions are executed, followed by the syntactic well-formedness checks. After the syntactic processing, the semantic default actions and well-formedness checks are called. Once this point is reached, the entire parse is finished.



PS

```
0: phrase1 acc1000 SELECT* NOUN
  category CASE
  children 0: morpheme YIRRIKJI
    category NOUN

    1: category CASE
      children 0: morpheme YIRRIKU
        category NOUN

        1: category CASE
          children 0: morpheme KARDIRIPA
            category NOUN

            1. morpheme *ABS*
              category CASE
```

SS

```
projection?: NIL
category: CASE
children: projection?: NIL
  morpheme: YIRRIKJI
  category: NOUN

  projection?: NIL
  morpheme: YIRRIKU
  category: NOUN

  projection?: NIL
  morpheme: KARDIRIPA
  category: NOUN

  projection?: T
  data: CASE-MARKED: ABSOLUTIVE
  morpheme: *ABS*
  category: CASE
```

Figure 3.15 The PS and SS for (7).

## Parsing the Precedence Phenomena

In the introduction to this chapter I listed the phenomena for which the parser is responsible; see table 3.1. Under the heading for precedence phenomena there were three areas: composition (for nouns, verbs, and auxiliaries), continuous case phrases, and auxiliary positioning. In this section I discuss how the PS parser handles these phenomena.

Of the three categories of word composition, the auxiliary has already been discussed. Nominal and verbal composition are quite similar, so only an example of the latter will be given. Consider the verb in (8).

(8) (PUNTA RM)

As with the auxiliary example shown, we start the parser at the lexical level. In its main loop it calls the morphological parser to process the verb stem, *punta*. The PS and SS for *punta* were given in figure 3.7. As no actions may fire, the lexical loop iterates, and the tense element, *rm*, is parsed. Its computed lexical entry is given in figure 3.16, and the resulting structure is given in figure 3.17. Note that this element does not project into SS on its own.

```
(RM;  
  (ps (actions (lexical (inject verb))))  
  (ss (data (tense nowpast))  
    (actions (licases (case-assign . absolutize))))))
```

Figure 3.16: The computed entry for *rm*.

```
PS  
  
Q: lexical actions, INJECT: VERB  
  morpheme: RM  
  category: TENSE  
  
SS
```

Figure 3.17: PS and SS for *rm*.

When the morphological PS is entered into the lexical PS, the inject operation of the tense element fires. In PS, this causes the verb stem and the tense element to become siblings under a single tree. In SS, the syntactic information of *rm* is added to that of *punta*. Once the *licases* action joins the other actions of the *V* node, it acts in concert with the remaining complement action so as to place the *case-assign* action for the *absolutize* node in the zero-level projection of the verb. The resulting structures are shown in figure 3.18.

PS

```
0: category: VERB
  children: 0: data: CONJUGATION 2
    morpheme: PUNTA
    category: VERB

    1: morpheme: AMI
    category: TENSE
```

SS

```
projection?: NIL
category: VERB
children: projection?: T
  actions: CASE-ASSIGN NEGATIVE
    THETA-ASSIGN AGENT
  category: VERB
  children: projection?: T
    actions: CASE-ASSIGN ABSOLUTIVE
      THETA-LINK PATH
      THETA-ASSIGN THEME
    date: TENSE: NONPAST
      THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME PATH)
      AGENT: NEGATIVE
      THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
      PATH DATIVE
      SUBJECT: AGENT
      OBJECT: PATH
    morpheme: PUNTA
    category: VERB
```

Figure 3 18: The PS and SS for *panda-mel*.

The second item on the list of phenomena concerns the processing of continuous case phrases. This was demonstrated in the discussion of the absolute case marker, above. So, the remaining phenomenon to be presented is auxiliary postposing.

The auxiliary appears in several different forms. It may be a clitic, a word on its own, or in a phrase by itself. It may be in either the first or second position. But not all manifestations of the auxiliary may appear in all of these positions. Therefore a demonstration of the parser's ability to handle this phenomenon would require an exhaustive list. Here I present an indicative example; more tests can be found in the appendix. Consider (9) which is a minor variation of the sample sentence, in which the auxiliary base, *ku*, has been removed. The equivalent input representation is given in (10).

- (9) *Ngajulu rin rin-rin panti rin kinu-ku kulu*  
 I-ERG-IN-3d take-NONPAST child-DAT booming  
 'I will take the booming from the child.'

- (10) (((NGAJULU RIN RIN RIN) ((PANTI RIN) ((KINU KU) ((KULU))))

Because the auxiliary word begins with a nominal agreement clitic, it must be exclusive to the preceding word, and therefore in second position. The PS for this sentence is given in figure 3.19. The key to the simplicity of the well-formedness check is the action auxiliary-edgcent. This action, and the lexical well-formedness check that the action has fired, guarantee elimination when necessary, thus ruling out certain auxiliaries from appearing in first position. Furthermore, since auxiliary adjacency does not confuse the auxiliary with other trees in PS (at either the lexical, phrase, or sentential levels), the check for the second position simply consists of looking at the second tree.

### 3.2.2 The Syntactic Parser

As mentioned above, the syntactic parser is called whenever a unit of PS becomes syntactically relevant. The first part of this section describes this mechanism from the point of view of the syntactic parser. Afterward, the main parsing algorithm is given. Finally, the algorithm is demonstrated on the syntactic phenomena handled by the parser.

#### Syntactic Relevance

There are three ways in which a unit of PS may become syntactically relevant: projection into SS, selection, and injection. The main mechanism is projection into syntax, performed by the action project-into-SS. The routine first projects the item according to its lexical information and then adds the tree to SS.

The second mechanism is selection, which is used both by auxiliary and con auxiliary elements. This action is used when the ordering of one element with respect to another has a syntactic effect. Specifically, the selector is taken to be the predicator and the selected is taken to be one of its arguments. For example,

```

0: phraseal actions: SELECT*: NOUN
   category: CASE
   children: 0: morpheme NGALFULU
              category: NOUN

              1: morpheme NLU
              category: CASE

1: category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
   children: 0: data SYLLABLES: 1
              morpheme NFA
              category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

              1: data SYLLABLES: 1
              morpheme NLA
              category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE

2: category: VERB
   children: 0: data: CONJUNCTION: 2
              morpheme: PONTA
              category: VERB

              1: morpheme: ANI
              category: TENSE

3 phraseal actions: SELECT*: NOUN
   category: CASE
   children: 0: morpheme FURDU
              category: NOUN

              1: morpheme KU
              category: CASE

4 phraseal actions: SELECT*: NOUN
   category: CASE
   children: 0: morpheme KARLI
              category: NOUN

              1: morpheme *ARS*
              category: CASE

```

Figure 3.19. PS for (18).

**case-marker select nouns** This action causes the syntactic counterpart of the noun to be an argument of the corresponding case phrase. In structural terms, the noun is made the sibling of the zero-level projection of the case-marker.

**Injection** is the last channel from PS to SS. With this action the syntactic information of the injector is added to that of the injected. An example of this concerns the parsing of inflected verbs. When the tense element attaches to the verb stem, its syntactic information is added to that of the verb's. The licensing action for the case-marking of absolutive case is the main bit of information that is added. The syntactic parser will then be able to add the case-marking action to verbal projection (in the zero-level node), because both the complement action and the license action for the case-marking action are in place.

After any of these actions has occurred, the syntactic parser is called to see if any further syntactic actions can apply, as a result of the addition of syntactic structure or information. The next section describes the workings of the syntactic parser.

### The Basic Engine

The parsing algorithm, given in table 3.8, loops through the suggested actions of the syntactic nodes to see if any may be executed. (Like the PS engine, this parser also employs a set of unsatisfied predicates for efficiency's sake.) Note that previously existing actions are also checked because the newly added structure may provide arguments appropriate for them.

1. Loop over every suggested action in SS  
if the action applies either to a sibling or to a tree  
in the structure, apply the action
2. If any actions have fired, try the above loop again

Table 3.8: The syntactic parsing engine.

There are four syntactic actions available, as listed in table 3.9. The first action, **case-assign**, performs the second half of case assignment. The first step, case-marking, need not be an action, since that feature is inherent in all of the case-markers. That is, the SS datum, **case-marked**, is stored in the lexical entry for each of the case-markers (for their own case, of course). The next two actions are for  $\theta$ -assignment. The second such action, **theta-link**, is needed only for the path  $\theta$  role, as it is assigned directly by the dative case-marker. The last action is for general argument taking. Currently, it is used only for the auxiliary which takes the verbal projection as its sole argument.

We now return to the second step of the parsing algorithm. If any actions are executed in the course of traversing the set of unsatisfied predicates, the loop is tried once again. In this way, all the actions that are applicable due to the introduction of new syntactic structure will be executed. This loop also eliminates any ordering effects of the actions in that if one action is dependent on another, it doesn't matter

```

case-assign (case)
theta-assign (role)
theta-link (role)
argument (category)

```

Table 3.9. Available syntactic actions.

which way they're listed—both will be executed. Of course, this looping does not mitigate the ordering effect of two actions that may be applicable to the same node at the same time. The parser assumes that at most one such action will be applicable.<sup>8</sup>

As with the PS parser, there are also routines for performing default actions and checking the well-formedness of the syntactic structure. Both of these routines are called by the PS parser once it has completed the sentential level of processing.

The only default action of the syntactic parser is to supply an auxiliary word if one is not present in the input string. Such an auxiliary consists of the null base and null agreement clitics, which contain the default information as mentioned above. Note that placing the handler for the zero auxiliary in syntax eliminates the need for the parser to guess where the auxiliary is to be placed in the input sentence; its placement does not matter, only its syntactic (and then semantic) effects concern the parser.

The well-formedness check for SS consists of making sure that the structure contains exactly one tree. This check substitutes the Case Filter in that nouns will not get linked into the verbal projection unless they are appropriately marked for case. Nouns that are not marked for case will remain as separate trees in the structure, and will thus be flagged as an error by this routine.

### Parsing the Syntactic Phenomena

The parser can handle two types of syntactic phenomena: determination of grammatical function and free phrase order. In this section I discuss how the syntactic parser goes about this.

The majority of the work in determining grammatical function is actually performed in the execution of the lexical rules, as described above. The syntactic parser just makes them stick by allowing actions to operate only on siblings, and not on other parts of the structure. In this way, the actions placed in the structure at their appropriate levels will, in fact, place their arguments in the proper place. Subjects will be adjoined as siblings of the first-level projection, and objects will be adjoined next to the zero-level projection.

Consider the verb stem *punta* once again. Given its  $\theta$  grid, and the lexical rules above, the parser determines the mapping from case and  $\theta$ -role to grammatical function, as shown in table 3.10. This mapping is implemented by placing the case-

<sup>8</sup>This method assumes unambiguous syntactic structures. Of course, there is structural ambiguity in Warlpiri—as in many other natural languages. This shortcoming of the parser is discussed in the concluding chapter.

and  $\theta$  actions at their respective levels in the projection. Figure 3 18, the SS for the inflected verb, demonstrated this placement.

case	$\theta$ role	grammatical function
ergative	agent	subject
absolutive	theme	subject
dative	path	object

Table 3 19 The case/ $\theta$ /GF mapping for *pona*.

The key to processing the second phenomenon, free phrase order, lies in the lack of precedence information in SS. When the syntactic engine searches for potential arguments, it traverses the entire set of trees, regardless of the order in which they were added. The search also involves previously adjacent trees, i.e., siblings of the node containing the action to be executed. Siblings must be checked because more than one action may apply to a single node.

Consider a permutation of the sample sentence, shown in (11). In order to appreciate the syntactic parser's indifference to precedence in the input string, we focus on the entry of the inflected verb into SS. When it projects into SS its argument-taking actions (e.g., *case-assign*) becomes manifest in its projection. The main loop of the syntactic engine then starts up, searching for arguments. It finds all of the arguments that are present and joins them to the verbal projection; this as yet unentered actions are not joined, and the actions performing their adjunction are simply left unexecuted.

- (11) {{{KARLI}}} {{{KA RMA SLA}}} {{{PONTA RMI}}} {{{NGAJURU SLU}}} {{{RUMOFU KU}}}

In (11) the verb enters after one of its arguments, *karh*, has already projected into SS. Therefore, only the actions for the subject may fire. The intermediate SS is shown in figure 3 20; the syntactic structure of the auxiliary has been omitted for brevity. When the fourth word, *ngajuru-slu*, enters, the subject actions fire; and when the last word projects into SS, the indirect object actions fire, completing the parse.

### 3.2.3 Semantic Interpretation

As mentioned above, semantic processing is performed on SS. After the syntactic structure has been checked for well formedness, it is checked for semantic well formedness. These checks are described below, but first I begin with the major semantic operation, argument identification.



# SS

```

projection?: NIL
data: ARGUMENT: VERB
category: VERB
children: projection?: T
  actions: CASE-ASSIGN ERGATIVE
           THETA-ASSIGN AGENT
  category: VERB
  children: projection?: NIL
            data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THEME
                  CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
            category: CASE
            children: projection?: NIL
                      morpheme: EARLI
                      category: NOUN

            projection?: T
            data: CASE-MARKED: ABSOLUTIVE
            morpheme: *ABS*
            category: CASE

  projection?: T
  actions: THETA-LINK: PATH
  data: TENSE: EINFACH
        THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME PATH)
        AGENT: ERGATIVE
        THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
        PATH: DATIVE
        SUBJECT: AGENT
        OBJECT: PATH
  morpheme: FEMTA
  category: VERB

```

Figure 3.20 The intermediate SS for (11).

### Argument Identification

Argument Identification is the process of associating nouns with the semantic roles they fill. The algorithm for argument identification is fairly simple. For each role is the verb's  $\theta$  grid, the verbal projection is searched for the nouns that have been assigned that role. For example, the mapping of  $\theta$  roles to nouns for the sample sentence, (1), is given in figure 3.21.

```
PATH projection?: NIL
morpheme: KUDU
category: NOUN

THEME projection?: NIL
morpheme: KARLI
category: NOUN

AGENT projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 1
      NUMBER: (SINGULAR)
morpheme: SGAJULU
category: NOUN
```

Figure 3.21. The mapping of  $\theta$ -roles to case phrases for (1).

### Well-Formedness Checks

Two semantic well-formedness checks are performed by the parser, each dealing with a different part of the auxiliary. The first ensures that the auxiliary base is appropriate for the tense of the inflected verb. This check is rather straightforward: the sentence is well-formed if the tense of the tense element is a member of the set of the allowable tenses of the base. For example, the sample sentence passes this test because its tense, non-part, is allowed by the base, *ka*. If the (the other) Imperfective base, *-pa*, were used it would be ill-formed.

The second well-formedness check concerns the agreement clitics, and consists itself of two parts. The first part checks licensing of clitics. That is, agreement clitics are grammatical only if there are corresponding arguments in the sentence, as licensed by the verb. Consider the verb stem, *panta*. It selects three  $\theta$ -roles which are manifest as subject, object, and indirect object; all three arguments are licensed. By the rules concerning auxiliary tagmatization, the subject and the indirect object (i.e., the negative and dative case phrases, respectively) must be registered in the auxiliary with clitics (which may not be phonologically overt, however). On the other hand, consider the verb stem, *nyim* 'to be; to sit'. It selects a single  $\theta$  role which shows up as the subject. As a result, the auxiliary may not appear with an object clitic or a dative registration marker.

The other part of the agreement check matches person and number information of the clitics and the arguments. This check is also simple: the persons and numbers must agree.<sup>16</sup> There is a slight twist with nominals with an overt number marker: they match either singular or plural number.

There is another twist in this processing, namely, handling null clitics and null anaphors. Null clitics have default values of third-person and singular. In the event of a null clitic, these values are retrieved and matched as usual. Null anaphors are handled differently. Given the intrasentential processing of the parser, these elements are considered as wild-cards for the purposes of agreement; any clitic will match them. In a parse that handles more like one sentence, the clitics will have to match their referents, just as in the case of overt arguments.

Demonstrating the parser's performance on these phenomena is best done with an exhaustive test of the possibilities. Such a list can be found in the appendix.

### 3.3 Parsing the Sample Sentence

Below is a parse tree of the sample sentence, (1). Each line corresponds to the execution of a single action. Lines begin with the name of the node performing the action, followed by the phonological level at which the action took place (for PS actions only). Lines end with the action that executed and its arguments.

The first five actions parsed the first word, *ngayulu-rin*. *Ngayulu* projected into SS, and the syntactic parser then projected it according to its lexical information, which was for zero levels. *Rin* was then parsed similarly. Once both morphemes entered PS, they were combined with the select action of *rin*:

```
NGAYULU (MORPHOLOGICAL): PROJECT-INTO-SS()
NGAYULU: PROJECTIONS{0}
RLU (MORPHOLOGICAL): PROJECT-INTO-SS()
RLU: PROJECTIONS{1}
RLU (LEXICAL): SELECT(BOUND)
```

The next set of actions parsed the auxiliary, *ku-rin-rin*. First, *ku* projected into SS, projected two levels, and placed its argument action (which later executed on the verbal projection) in its specifier position. Then the subject clitic, *rin*, entered and also projected into SS. Once *rin* entered PS, *ku* was able to first combine with it and then select it, with right-adjacent and auxiliary-select, respectively. The dative regulation clitic, *rin*, was then parsed similarly to the subject clitic.

```
KA (MORPHOLOGICAL): PROJECT-INTO-SS()
KA: PROJECTIONS{2}
KA SPECIFIER((ARGUMENT VERB))
KRA (MORPHOLOGICAL): PROJECT-INTO-SS()
```

<sup>16</sup>This formulation is not quite right for a full account of Warlpiri agreement, but it serves for the simple range of the parser. See [Nants] for a more nearly complete description of this intricate phenomenon.

```

RMA PROJECTIONS(0)
RMA (LEXICAL): AUXILIARY-ADJACENT()
KA (LEXICAL): RIGHT-ADJACENT((AUXILIARY-SUBJECT AUXILIARY-OBJECT
                                AUXILIARY-DATIVE))
EA (LEXICAL): AUXILIARY-SELECT(AUXILIARY-SUBJECT)
ALA (MORPHOLOGICAL): PROJECT-INTO-SS()
ALA PROJECTIONS(0)
RCA (LEXICAL): AUXILIARY-ADJACENT()
SMA (LEXICAL): RIGHT-ADJACENT((AUXILIARY-OBJECT AUXILIARY-DATIVE))
XA (LEXICAL): AUXILIARY-SELECT(AUXILIARY-DATIVE)

```

The following set of actions parsed the verb, *gants-ma*. First the verb stem, *gants*, projected into SS. Once the verbal projection entered SS, the auxiliary (headed by *ma*) was able to attach it in its specifier position, by the argument action. The next actions see the verb placing its case- and  $\theta$  actions in its structure. Note that the assignment of ergative case and the agent  $\theta$ -role execute now because the ergatively marked noun, *ngapsa rfa*, is present in SS. The other case- and  $\theta$ -actions of the verb must wait until the arguments appear in SS. The last action for parsing the verb concerns the tense element, *ma*, which combines with the verb stem and injects its syntactic information into the verbal projection. (The added information of interest is the action licensing of absolutive case assignment.)

```

FUTA (MORPHOLOGICAL): PROJECT-INTO-SS()
FUTA PROJECTIONS(2)
FUTA SPECIFIER((THETA-ASSIGN . AGENT))
EA ARGUMENT(VERB)
FUTA SPECIFIER((CASE-ASSIGN ERGATIVE))
FUTA CASE-ASSIGN(ERGATIVE)
FUTA THETA-ASSIGN(AGENT)
FUTA COMPLEMENT((THETA-ASSIGN THEME))
FUTA COMPLEMENT((THETA-LINK PATH))
FUTA COMPLEMENT((CASE-ASSIGN ABSOLUTIVE))
EMI (LEXICAL): INJECT(VERB)

```

The fourth word, *kundu-bu*, was parsed with the associated actions below. The parse here proceeded quite like that of the first word, *ngapsa rfa*. Note that once the dative case phrase entered SS it was linked to the verbal projection via the theta-link action of the verb.

```

KUNDU (MORPHOLOGICAL): PROJECT-INTO-SS()
KUNDU PROJECTIONS(0)
KD (MORPHOLOGICAL): PROJECT-INTO-SS()
KD PROJECTIONS(1)
FUTA THETA-LINK(PATH)
KD (LEXICAL): SELECT(MOOW)

```

The last sequence of actions shows the parse of *kark*. Here we see the default actions *e*-*nucle* at the physical level. The absolutive case-marker (shown here as *MISS*) is read into PS at the physical level. It then projected into SS as would other case-marker. Immediately, the case phrase was attached as an object of the verbal projection, via the *case-assign* and *theta-assign* actions. Finally, the noun, *kark*, was selected by the case-marker.

```
KARK: (MORPHOLOGICAL): PROJECT-INTO-SS()
KARK: PROJECTIONS(0)
+ARS: (PHRASAL): PROJECT-INTO-SS()
+ARS: PROJECTIONS(1)
PUNTA CASE-ASSIGN(ABSOLUTIVE)
PUNTA THETA-ASSIGN(THEME)
+ASS: (PHRASAL): SELECT(NOUN)
```

This completes the parsing trace of the sample sentence. Below I show the resulting PS and SS for this sentence. The interpretation of the SS, i.e., the mapping of the verb's  $\theta$  roles to words, was given in figure 3.21.

The precedence structure for sentence (1):

```
0: phrasal actions: SELECT: NOUN
  category CASE
  children: 0: morpheme NGAJULU
            category NOUN

            1: morpheme NLU
              category CASE

1: category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
  children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT, AUXILIARY-OBJECT
            data SYLLABLES 1
            morpheme KA
            category: AUXILIARY-BASE

            1: data SYLLABLES: 1
              morpheme KKA
              category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

            2: data SYLLABLES: 1
              morpheme KKA
              category: AUXILIARY-OBJECTIVE

2: category: VERB
  children: 0 data CONJUGATION: 2
            morpheme PUNTA
```

```

category: VERB

1 data: CONJUGATION 2
morpheme: REI
category: TENSE

3 phrasal actions: SELECT* NOUN
category: CASE
children: 0: morpheme: KURDO
category: NOUN

i: morpheme: KU
category: CASE

4 phrasal actions: SELECT* NOUN
category: CASE
children: 0: morpheme: KARLI
category: NOUN

```

```

i: morpheme: *ASSE
category: CASE

```

The syntactic structure for sentence (1):

```

projection?: NIL
category: AUXILIARY-HASE
children: projection?: NIL
          data: ARGUMENT, VERB
          category: VERB
          children: projection?: NIL
                    data: TENSE-ASSIGNED: AGENT
                        CASE-ASSIGNED: NEGATIVE
                    category: CASE
                    children: projection?: NIL
                              data: PERSON. 1
                                  NUMBER: (SINGULAR)
                              morpheme: KODJULU
                              category: NOUN

                              projection?: T
                              data: CASE-MARKED NEGATIVE
                              morpheme: KU
                              category: CASE

                    projection?: T
                    category: VERB

```

```

children: projection?: NIL
  data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THEM
        CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
  category: CASE
  children: projection?: NIL
    morpheme: KARLI
    category: NOUN

    projection?: T
    data: CASE-MARKED: ABSOLUTIVE
    morpheme: *ABS*
    category: CASE

  projection?: NIL
  data: THETA-LINKED: PATH
  category: CASE
  children: projection?: NIL
    morpheme: KUNGU
    category: NOUN

    projection?: T
    data: CASE-ASSIGNED: DATIVE
          CASE-MARKED: DATIVE
          THETA-ASSIGNED: PATH
    morpheme: KI
    category: CASE

  projection?: T
  data: TENSE: NONPAST
        THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME PATH)
        AGENT: ERGATIVE
        THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
        PATH: DATIVE
        SUBJECT: AGENT
        OBJECT: PATH
  morpheme: PUNTA
  category: VERB

projection?: T
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: NIL
  morpheme: NLA
  category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE

projection?: NIL

```

```

data: PERSON 1
      NUMBER SINGULAR
morpheme RKA
category AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

projection?: T
data: TENSES: (NONPAST)
      ASPECT, IMPERFECT
morpheme KA
category AUXILIARY-BASE

```



## Chapter 4

# Conclusion

The first section of this chapter discusses some other current grammatical frameworks and how they address the phenomenon of free word order. Following this it turns to the parser's shortcomings and how they might be overcome.

The parser presented here is not the only member of its family, but it has only a few cousins. The closest relative is another Government-Binding based Waripiri parser, written by Branson-Loker. Unfortunately, this work has not yet been published, and I have not yet had a chance to view the system in operation, so I can not comment on it here. However, a comparison of the parsers should prove to be quite interesting.

There are also a few GB-based processors in the literature that work on languages other than Waripiri. A comparison of these works is beyond the scope of this thesis, but I present the list of the systems of which I know in table 4.1. The interested reader is referred to the original publications.

- Aho's English parser[Aho87]
- Dorr's English-Spanish translator[Dor87]
- Shopy's English-Spanish translator[Sho85]
- Wehrli's French parser[Weh84]

Table 4.1. Other GB based processors.

### 4.1 Other Grammatical Frameworks

There are many grammatical frameworks besides Government Binding theory. However, I shall only be able to discuss a few of them here. In particular, I will discuss ID/LP Grammar, Lexical Functional Grammar, and Tree-Adjoining Grammar. Of course, these reviews are brief, and therefore do not do justice to the entire content of the theories; this discussion focuses only on their ability to analyze the phenomenon of free word order.

#### 4.1.1 ID/LP Grammar

ID/LP grammars[Co68a] contain two kinds of rules. ID rules dictate the immediate dominance relations of the constituents of the grammar, while LP rules constrain the linear precedence among the children of a parent node. Such a grammar was actually presented in the introduction, under the guise of a modified context-free grammar. That grammar for simple transitive sentences is repeated here as (1).

- (1)  $S \rightarrow \{NP_i, VP\}$   
 $VP \rightarrow \{V, NP_o\}$

These are the two ID rules of the grammar. The first rule states that an  $S$  consists of an  $NP$  and a  $VP$  in either order. The second states that a  $VP$  consists of a  $V$  and an  $NP$ , also in either order. This grammar does not contain any LP rules, however.

As mentioned in the introduction, grammars of this sort can suffer from inadequate coverage. For example, the ID/LP grammar above can not generate either of the sentence schemata found in (2).

- (2)  $V NP_i NP_o$   
 $NP_o NP_i V$

This poverty of coverage seems to be at odds with the structure of the parser presented here. After all, one of its structures represents precedence and one represents hierarchy, which are very similar to the LP and ID rules, respectively. The key difference, however, lies in the scope of the hierarchical relations. In ID/LP grammar, all the children of a single sibling must be adjacent to each other, as subject to the linear precedence given in the LP rules. For the parser, on the other hand, there is no such restriction on the children of a syntactic node; they may appear anywhere in the input string. Thus, the languages allowed by the parser's grammar subsume ID/LP languages, and allow for the scrambling evident in free-word order languages. It is important to note that this coverage is not gained at the expense of linguistic perplexity: the parser is still able to represent the relevant hierarchical structure, in order to recover semantic roles.

#### 4.1.2 Lexical-Functional Grammar

Kleinsman[Kln82] has shown that Lexical-Functional Grammar[Bre82] can account for free-word order phenomena in much the same way as presented here. The key to analyzing the similarity between free- and fixed-order systems lies in LFG's bipartite representation of *c-structure* and *f-structure*. C-structure is ordered by precedence and hierarchy, and is used to represent the ordered phenomena, such as continuous case phrases. F-structure, on the other hand, is not ordered by precedence, rather it is strictly a hierarchical structure, used to represent grammatical functions. Like the GB grammar used by the parser, c-structure is related to f-structure by case marking.

The LFG analysis can be illustrated for a simple language of transitive sentences. The grammar given here, taken from Klavans' paper, is for Ngyimba, another aboriginal language from Australia that is quite similar to Warlpiri. The *c*-structure rules are shown in (3).<sup>3</sup>

- (3)  $S \rightarrow \alpha (Eact) \alpha^*$  (where  $\alpha = X, \bar{X}$ )  
 $\bar{X} \rightarrow N^*$   
 $\bar{V} \rightarrow V^*$

These rules cover continuous case phrases, labeled ' $\bar{N}$ '. Single-noun case phrases are also handled, they are labeled ' $N$ '. The *c*-structures derived with *c*-structure are annotated both with grammatical function and case, as shown in (4), which gives the annotations both for the subject and the object. The key here is that each noun or noun phrase marked for a given case will be associated with the same grammatical function. Thus, the position of the noun or noun phrase does not matter; only its case-marking is involved in the determination of its grammatical role.

- (4) a. (SUBJ)  
       (CASE = ERG)  
       b. (OBJ)  
       (CASE = ABS)

Annotated *c*-structure elements are mapped into *f*-structure by their grammatical functions. The *f*-structure schema for transitive verbs is shown in figure 4.1. The ' $\bar{PRED}$ ' slots in the structure are used to hold the lexical stems that correspond to grammatical functions indicated by the 'SUBJ' and 'OBJ' slots. Like the lexical theory used by the paperer, LFG states that the subcategorization for arguments is dictated by the predicator; this information is shown in the top-level ' $\bar{PRED}$ ' slot. In passing, note that LFG takes grammatical functions to be elementary and so the subcategorization is stated in those terms; GB takes these functions to be derivative from semantic rules, and so states predicative function in terms of  $\theta$ -roles.

SUBJ	CASE	ERG
	PRED	<i>x</i>
OBJ	CASE	ABS
	PRED	<i>y</i>
PRED : { SUBJ OBJ }		

Figure 4.1: The *f*-structure schema for transitive verbs.

Thus we see that LFG functions very similarly to the GB account proposed in this thesis. The separation of predicators and hierarchy is the key to handling both

<sup>3</sup>The category 'Eact' (inertive) is used for the predicating of the auxiliary (which must also appear in Warlpiri's position, roughly speaking).

free- and fixed-order phenomena. While there are other theoretical differences that prevent a merging of the two linguistic camps, both LFG and GB seem to be on the same footing here. It is unfortunate that there has been no published work on LFG based parsing of free-word order phenomena.

### 4.1.3 Tree-Adjoining Grammar

A recent development in the framework of Tree-Adjoining Grammar[10] (TAG) presents an interesting account of free word order phenomena. TAG(LD/LP) provides local domination structures over which linear precedence can be defined. LD structures can be thought of as ID rules that may be more than one level deep; ID rules are equivalent to LD structures of depth one. For example, the equivalent of the ID rule in (1) are shown in figure 4.2. TAG(LD/LP) extends this notion by allowing structures of arbitrary depth.



Figure 4.2: The structural equivalents of the ID rule in (1).

A TAG(LD/LP) that covers the language of transitive sentences is shown in figure 4.3. Note that the grammar includes only a single domination structure, and no linear precedence relations. This grammar does, indeed, generate the six permutations of the language. Furthermore, it represents the hierarchical relations that are linguistically motivated.

However, there is a problem with TAG(LD/LP): the grammar has too great an expressive power. There are no constraints on the composition of the domination structures, so structures of arbitrary size can be used. This freedom allows TAG(LD/LP) to escape the limits of ID/LP and represent free word order (at least as far as the sample language demonstrates). But TAG(LD/LP) seems to be too general, and thereby lose its explanatory power. For this reason the GB account presented here seems to be preferable.



Figure 4.3 A TAG(LD/LP) for transitive sentences

## 4.2 Shortcomings and Future Work

Perhaps the most obvious shortcoming of the currently implemented parser is the limited range of the Warlpiri language that it can parse. Warlpiri, like any other natural language, contains many intricate phenomena, and this parser has only begun to truly analyze it. In the first section below I list some outstanding constructions that deserve attention, and discuss how the parser might be modified to handle them.

The other arena in which the parser comes up short is the ability to parse more than one language. GB is, after all, a theory that attempts to explain Universal Grammar, and so a parser based on it should be able to parse many languages, not just one. The second section discusses what seems to be involved in extending the parser to cover other languages.

### 4.2.1 More Warlpiri

There is much more to Warlpiri than the picture presented in this thesis.<sup>2</sup> Table 4.2 gives a list of some of the remaining phenomena for the parser. Those listed in the first group are the most likely to be covered with relatively little effort. The second group shows a serious shortcoming of the parser that must be addressed before the parser can be said to properly parse natural language. The last group lists other phenomena that will demand a non-trivial amount of work, both linguistic and computational. However, even for these phenomena, the required modifications to the parser should follow in the same vein as the currently implemented systems; no major rethink of the basic design seems necessary.

Perhaps the most tantalizing phenomenon is parsing continuous case phrases with intermediate case-marking. This is demonstrated in (5), repeated from the introductory chapter. The case phrase consists of two simpler case phrases, *marla-ku* and *paṛaṛpaṛa wari-ku*, both of which exist in a single phonological phrase. Handling this phenomenon should involve as more than giving case-markers the plural article

<sup>2</sup>See [Nes86] for an extensive discussion of the phenomena of Warlpiri.

- continuous case phrase with immediate case-marking
  - discontinuous case phrases
  - headship in multi-noun case phrases
  - auxiliary complementizer
- 
- lexical ambiguity
  - structural ambiguity
  - morphological ambiguity
- 
- powerbig
  - compoundbig
  - topicalization
  - infinitival clauses
  - secondary predication
  - nominal sentences

Table 4.2: Some unhandled Weipin phenomena.

of selecting an unmarked member of other case phrases. With this action, such case phrases would be parsed by first parsing each of the simpler continuous case phrases (i.e., those with some number of unmarked nouns followed by a case-marked noun), and then grouping these case phrases with the newly added action.

- (3) *maru-ky paku-ke wari-ki*  
*kaguro-DAT friendly big DAT*  
 'to/from the big, friendly kaguro'

Parsing discontinuous case phrases also seems to be done at hand. (6) shows a variation of the sample sentence from the introduction with each phrase, composed of the words *kuro-ki* and *wari-ki*. They are interpreted in various, roughly as 'the big child', despite the separation in the sentence. The action to be added here would show up in syntax, so as to ignore the effects of ordering. Roughly speaking, case-markers would be allowed to take similarly marked case phrases as arguments. But the precise structures to be derived are not so clear when the analysing the head of the phrase is considered. That is, one noun of a case phrase is interpreted as the head of the phrase, with the other nouns acting as modifiers (much like adjectives in English). The determination of the head of a phrase and the modificational structure does not seem to be straightforward, yet the ingredients for parsing full case phrases seem to be available. All that is needed is the theoretical recipe.

- (6) *Nyuu-ru ki ruu-ru paku-ru kuro-ki kuro-ki wari-ki*  
*I AM TAKING the-booming big DAT child DAT*  
 'I am taking the booming from the big child'

As mentioned above, there is another element to the auxiliary word, namely, complementizers. These elements indicate the mood of the sentence and combine with the tense and aspect inflection. Morphologically speaking, they appear as the first element in the linear template of the auxiliary, so this form of parsing won't require too much effort. Syntactically speaking they don't present much of a problem either, as they can be entered into the auxiliary projection.

The next area on the list is the traditional problem of ambiguity which the correct version of the parser assumes away. There are two flavors of ambiguity that fall under the purview of the parser. Lexical ambiguity exists when a single morpheme maps to more than one lexical entry, due to differing uses in syntax. Syntactic ambiguity occurs when more than one structure may be derived in the parse of a single sentence. At present I can offer no better solution other than the standard methods, such as simulation of a co-deterministic parser, or installation of a lookahead device to remove local ambiguity. This area of parsing deserves more attention.

Morphological ambiguity, the third type listed, will arise when the parser is extended to handle unseparated words. That is, instead of supplying sentences with sentence, phrase, word, and morpheme boundaries, only the former three will need to be supplied. The job of the parser then expands to breaking up each word into its constituent morphemes. For example, the word *ngaynirha* can be broken into two morpheme covers, shown in (7). (As it happens, the first cover is ungrammatical, and only the second—the one used in the sample sentence—is grammatical.) Ambiguity exists when more than one cover is possible, such as the case given here. Again, one solution that comes to mind is to try each cover separately (i.e., by simulating a non-deterministic parser), and halting the parse on those covers that do not parse for some reason (e.g., failing to combine isomorphologically).

- (7) a. (*ngayn*, *ir*, *ha*)  
       b. (*ngaynir*, *ha*)

The last group in the list indicates the wide range of constructions in Warlpiri. Preverbs cliticize onto verb stems and affect the meaning and categorization of the predicate. For example, the preverb, *ngayn*, adds a benefactive aspect to the verb. Note that the change in meaning licenses another argument, which would also appear with dative case marking. (8) shows the sample sentence from the introduction with the preverb added to the main verb, and the extra argument for which it subcategorizes. If preverbs were this simple, it wouldn't be too difficult to make the extensions for handling them. However, preverbs enter into many other constructions that are still understood.

- (8) *Ngaynirha-rha lu-ma-rin-juric ngayn punta-ma kurdh-lu kark wurl-kil.*  
 3-ERG INCORP-1st-3rd-DAT benefactive take NONPAST child DAT  
 boomerang man-DAT

'I am taking the boomerang from the child for (the benefit of) the man.'

Compounding is a morphological phenomenon where two words combine to form a single word, with a corresponding change in meaning. For example, *marra* 'grass'

and *ngarna* 'eat' can be compounded to form *marne ngarna* meaning a grass-eater. The morphology of these words is similar to that of case-marking, yet there are differences which will entail modifications to the parser.

Topicalization is the process of placing a phrase before the sentence, often with a significant pause in between the focused phrase and the sentence proper, for the purpose of emphasis. This is a stronger form than moving a phrase to the first position. In fact, there can be several topicalized phrases. Furthermore, topicalization will usually involve repetition of phrases rather than movement, and so the copied phrases must be identified during parsing. This is exemplified with another variation of the sample sentence, shown in (9). The syntax of topics does not seem too hard to state, but the real problem lies in its semantics. The theory of focus and emphasis is still quite impoverished.

- (9) *Ngayulu-rlu, ngayulu-rlu lu-rna-rlu punda-rni kardu-lu burh*  
 I 3SG I 3SG EMPHS I-3d take NONFAST child DAT boomerang  
 'As for me, I am taking the boomerang from the child.'

Infinitival clauses, like in English, are subordinate clauses that contain a verbal element and arguments. Often one of these arguments is linked to one of the arguments in the main phrase. (10) shows an example of an infinitival clause (in this case, controlled by the subject of the main clause), taken from the discussion of control theory in the second chapter. Note there is no multi-level embedding of subordinate clauses in Warlpiri; infinitival clauses may be nested just once in a sentence. The syntax of these clauses seems very similar to that of main clauses, and so it shouldn't be too difficult to extend the parser. Perhaps the trickiest part of this phenomenon are the issues of control which will require modification.

- (10) *Karnia lu-ju wungku-mi parla kardu-ngo-karna.*  
 woman EMPHS I-3d speak NONFAST you dig-DEF COMP  
 'The woman is speaking to me while digging yams.'

Secondary predicates are like restrictive relative clauses in English which modify one of the main arguments of a sentence. As one might expect, these clauses are identified with the argument they modify by case-marking (rather than by position, as with English). In (11), the secondary clause modifies the subject, indicating the body part by which the action was achieved. The syntax of secondary predicates is like that of infinitival clauses in that there is an argument outside the clause that is the subject of the clause itself. As a result, secondary predication should follow fairly quickly from the extensions needed for infinitival clauses.

- (11) *Ngayulu-rlu lu-rna-rlu punda-rni rindku-rn kardu-lu kardi.*  
 I 3SG EMPHS I-3d take NONFAST hand 3SG child DAT  
 boomerang  
 'I am taking the boomerang from the child with my hands.'

The last phenomenon on the list, nominal sentences, is rather common in languages of the world. Nominal sentences are often used to state a feature about



something. They cannot be used to discuss actions, for instance, as would be done with verbal sentences. (12) gives an example of a nominal sentence. Despite the lack of a verb, this sentence can be interpreted, and it is given the reading that a copular *pro* is in languages like English. As with some of the other phenomena listed above, the simpler cases of nominal sentences don't seem too far off for the parser. But once the real complexity of these sentences is encountered, their entry into the parser's repertoire becomes a bit more distant.

- (12) *Ngarra-jarra-pala wari-jarra*  
 man-PLAT 3SG big-STAT  
 'The two men are big.'

### 4.3.2 Other Languages

With only one language in the parser's domain, it is rather easy to choose among the remaining languages of the world for others to be parsed. This choice has hinted at how English might be parsed, and that, in fact, is the next proper I intend to undertake with the parser. Happily, it seems that only a small amount of modification will be needed.

The key to tailoring the parser to English is to recognise the correspondences between the Warlpiri phenomena and their English counterparts. First, consider morphology. Verbal morphology in English seems to be as simple as Warlpiri, with the tense element affixing onto the verb stem. Of course, there are many more exceptions with English verbs, but these can be dealt with later.

English nominal morphology is simpler because there are no case-markers (disregarding the genitive case, for instance). Thus, only nouns and number-markers (i.e., "s") will have to be covered.

Dative case-marking in English is performed at the word level and from left-to-right, as opposed to the morphological level and from right-to-left. This distinction will be simple to encode in the lexicon. (The prepositions "to" or "from" are the main dative case-markers in English.)

Nominative case-marking is performed by INFL (the English equivalent of AUX), and oblique case marking is performed by the verb. The verb follows suit in its case-marking direction of left-to-right, but INFL seems to mark its case in the other way. This seeming contradiction is already handled by the parser, as it processes the auxiliary in a special manner anyhow. In English, the auxiliary will simply mark its case right-to-left, rather than left-to-right as in Warlpiri.

As for the syntactic structures, they will be very similar to those used for Warlpiri, as mentioned in the introductory chapter. One discrepancy concerns the position of the subject. In the Warlpiri GB literature, the subject is placed in the specifier position of the verbal projection, whereas in the mainstream GB theory (which has most often focused on English), the subject is placed in the specifier position of INFL. The parser is already powerful enough to encode the distinction, but the theoretical differences should be ironed out so that a more unified structure can be used.

This is only a very rough sketch of how to build a corresponding parser for English, but it should serve to indicate the relative simplicity of the task. Of course, it remains to be done, but the parser looks like it will prove robust enough for the job.

# Appendix A

## Test Cases

### A.1 Implementation Notes

*Just a couple of notes about the implementation.* First I should mention that the parser is actually quite fast. It takes about one to two seconds to parse the sample sentence, and not much longer to interpret the resulting syntactic structure to obtain the *#* *relat/word* mapping.

The code itself is about 50 pages in length. There are 19 objects that comprise the program. The major objects are the precedence parser and the syntactic parser, as well as the lexicon. The precedence parser consists of four objects for each of the phonological levels, and one central parser containing the beam engine. The syntactic parser is a single object. Both parsers are based on the phrase-marker object that implements a simple forest structure; the precedence parser imposes ordering on the forest, whereas the syntactic parser does not. The phrase-marker, in turn, refers to category objects that implement the nodes of the parse tree. Categories contain the data and actions particular to the parser type. The lexicon, on the other hand, is constructed as a mapping of morphemes to lexical entries, themselves objects in the system. At the base of the system are five support objects implementing lists, sets, mappings, functions and arrays.

The program was written in the McFlavor system on a Symbolics 3000-series Lisp Machine (under release 6.1). The McFlavor system is an object-oriented flavor system written at MIT by Edward Barton, which is very much like the Lip Machine flavor system. McFlavor was chosen because it runs in Macflap (under TOPS20), as well as the Symbolics.

### A.2 Tests Cases

This section contains a (rather long) series of test cases for the parser. The test types are listed in table A.1. For each type, a number of tests were constructed, and they are listed in their corresponding section. Ungrammatical inputs are labelled with an asterisk, note that all of them have, indeed, been declared ill formed by the parser. Grammatical inputs are presented without annotations, and note that the parser has properly processed them too.

- verb stems
- verbs
- noun composition
- verb composition
- auxiliary composition
- continuous case phrases
- auxiliary positioning
- free phrase order
- argument identification
- null auxiliary components
- null apophases
- too many arguments
- case marking
- auxiliary base agreement
- nominal agreement

Table A.1: Test cases

### A.2.1 Verb Stems

Parsing YA.

```
PS: O: data: CONJUGATION: 5
    morpheme: YA
    category: VERB

SS: projection?: NIL
    category: VERB
    children: projection?: I
              actions: TEXTA-ASSIGN: THREE
              category: VERB
              children: projection?: I
                        actions: SPECIFIER: (CASE-ASSIGN
                                           ABSOLUTIVE)
                        data: THEIA-ROLES: (THEME)
                               THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
                               SUBJECT: THEME
                        morpheme: YA
                        category: VERB
```

Parsing YULKA

```
PS: O: data: CONJUGATION: 1
    morpheme: YULKA
```

```

category: VERB

SS. projection?: NIL
category: VERB
children: projection?: T
          actions: THETA-ASSIGN: THEME
          category: VERB
          children: projection?: T
                    actions: THETA-LINK: PATH
                           SPECIFIER: (CASE-ASSIGN
                                       ABSOLUTIVE)
                    data: THETA-ROLES: (THEME PATH)
                           THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
                           PATH: DATIVE
                           SUBJECT: THEME
                           OBJECT: PATH
                    morpheme: YULKA
                    category: VERB

```

Parsing WANRI.

```

PS 0: data: CONJUGATION 2
      morpheme WANRI
      category: VERB

```

```

SS. projection?: NIL
category: VERB
children: projection?: T
          actions: CASE-ASSIGN: NEGATIVE
                  THETA-ASSIGN: AGENT
          category: VERB
          children: projection?: T
                    actions: THETA-LINK: PATH
                    data: THETA-ROLES: (AGENT PATH)
                           AGENT: NEGATIVE
                           PATH: DATIVE
                           SUBJECT: AGENT
                           OBJECT: PATH
                    morpheme: WANRI
                    category: VERB

```

Parsing NYA

```

PS 0: data: CONJUGATION 3
      morpheme NYA

```

```

category: VERB

35 projection?: NIL
category: VERB
children: projection?: T
          actions: CASE=ASSIGN NEGATIVE
                  THETA=ASSIGN AGENT
          category: VERB
          children: projection?: T
                  actions: THETA=ASSIGN THEME
                          COMPLEMENT (CASE=ASSIGN
                                      ABSOLUTIVE)
                  data: THETA=ROLES (AGENT THEME)
                       AGENT NEGATIVE
                       THEME ABSOLUTIVE
                       SUBJECT AGENT
                       OBJECT THEME
          morpheme: NYA
          category: VERB

FarsiNG PUNTA...

PS: 0 data: CONJUGATION 2
morpheme: PUNTA
category: VERB

35 projection?: NIL
category: VERB
children: projection?: T
          actions: CASE=ASSIGN NEGATIVE
                  THETA=ASSIGN AGENT
          category: VERB
          children: projection?: T
                  actions: THETA=LINK PATH
                          THETA=ASSIGN THEME
                          COMPLEMENT (CASE=ASSIGN
                                      ABSOLUTIVE)
                  data: THETA=ROLES (AGENT THEME PATH)
                       AGENT NEGATIVE
                       THEME ABSOLUTIVE
                       PATH GATIVE
                       SUBJECT AGENT
                       OBJECT PATH
          morpheme: PUNTA
          category: VERB

```

### A.2.2 Inflected Verbs

#### Parsing (YA NI).

```
PS: 0: category: VERB
      children: 0: data: CONJUGATION 5
                  morpheme: YA
                  category: VERB

                  1: data: CONJUGATION 5
                      morpheme: NI
                      category: TENSE

SS: projection?: NIL
    category: VERB
    children: projection?: T
              actions: CASE-ASSIGN ABSOLUTIVE
                      THETA-ASSIGN THEME
              category: VERB
              children: projection?: T
                        data: TENSE: NONPAST
                            THETA-ROLES: (TNONE)
                            THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
                            SUBJECT: THEME
                        morpheme: YA
                        category: VERB
```

#### Parsing (YULKA NI).

```
PS: 0: category: VERB
      children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 1
                  morpheme: YULKA
                  category: VERB

                  1: data: CONJUGATION: 1
                      morpheme: NI
                      category: TENSE

SS: projection?: NIL
    category: VERB
    children: projection?: T
              actions: CASE-ASSIGN ABSOLUTIVE
                      THETA-ASSIGN THEME
              category: VERB
              children: projection?: T
                        actions: THETA-LINK, PATH
```

```

data: TENSE: NONPAST
      THETA-ROLES: (THEME PATH)
      THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
      PATH: DATIVE
      SUBJECT: THEME
      OBJECT: PATH
morpheme: YUMA
category: VERB

```

Parsing (WARRI RMI):

```

PS: 0: category: VERB
      children: 0: data CONJUGATION 2
                  morpheme: WARRI
                  category: VERB

                  1: data CONJUGATION: 2
                      morpheme: RMI
                      category: TENSE

```

```

SS projection?: YIL
category: VERB
children: projection?: T
          actions: CASE-ASSIGN ERGATIVE
                  THETA-ASSIGN AGENT
          category: VERB
          children: projection?: T
                    actions: LICENSE: (CASE-ASSIGN ABSOLUTIVE)
                            THETA-LINK PATH
                    data: TENSE: NONPAST
                          THETA-ROLES: (AGENT PATH)
                          AGENT: NEGATIVE
                          PATH: DATIVE
                          SUBJECT: AGENT
                          OBJECT: PATH
                    morpheme: WARRI
                    category: VERB

```

Parsing (NYA NYI):

```

PS: 0: category: VERB
      children: 0: data CONJUGATION 3
                  morpheme: NYA
                  category: VERB

```



```

      &: data: CONJUGATION: 3
        morpheme: FYI
        category: TENSE

SS: projection?: NIL
  category: VERB
  children: projection?: T
    actions: CASE-ASSIGN NEGATIVE
      THETA-ASSIGN: AGENT
    category: VERB
    children: projection?: T
      actions: CASE-ASSIGN ABSOLUTIVE
        THETA-ASSIGN: THEME
      data: TENSE: NONPAST
        THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME)
        AGENT: ERGATIVE
        THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
        SUBJECT: AGENT
        OBJECT: THEME
      morpheme: NYA
      category: VERB

Parsing (PONTA RMI).

PS=0: category: VERB
  children 0: data: CONJUGATION: 2
    morpheme: PONTA
    category: VERB

      &: data: CONJUGATION: 2
        morpheme: RMI
        category: TENSE

SS: projection?: NIL
  category: VERB
  children: projection?: T
    actions: CASE-ASSIGN ERGATIVE
      THETA-ASSIGN: AGENT
    category: VERB
    children: projection?: T
      actions: CASE-ASSIGN ABSOLUTIVE
        THETA-LINK: PATH
        THETA-ASSIGN: THEME
      data: TENSE: NONPAST
        THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME PATH)

```

AGENT: NEGATIVE  
 THEME: ABSOLUTIVE  
 PATE: DATIVE  
 SUBJECT: AGENT  
 OBJECT: PATH  
 morpheme: PUNTA  
 category: VERB

### A.2.3 Noun Composition

Parsing (NGAJULU KLU).

P3. 0: phraseal actions: SELECT\* NOUN  
 category: CASE  
 children: 0: morpheme: NGAJULU  
 category: NOUN

1: morpheme: KLU  
 category: CASE

S5 projection?: NIL  
 category: CASE  
 children: projection?: NIL  
 data: PERSON. 1  
 NUMBER (SINGULAR)  
 morpheme: NGAJULU  
 category: NOUN  
 projection?: T  
 data: CASE-MARKED NEGATIVE  
 morpheme: KLU  
 category: CASE

Parsing \*(KARLI KMI).

(KARLI KMI) is ungrammatical.  
 The precedence structure is unconnected

Parsing \*(KU KURDU).

(KU KURDU) is ungrammatical.  
 The precedence structure is unconnected.

Parsing \*(KARLU KU KLU).

(KARLU KU KLU) is ungrammatical

The precedence structure is unconnected

#### A.2.4 Verb Composition

Parsing (PUNTA KHI).

```
PS: 0: category: VERB
      children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 2
                  morpheme: PUNTA
                  category: VERB

                  1: data: CONJUGATION: 2
                      morpheme: KHI
                      category: TENSE

SS: projection?: Nil
    category: VERB
    children: projection?: T
              actions: CASE-ASSIGN: ERGATIVE
                      THETA-ASSIGN: AGENT
    category: VERB
    children: projection?: T
              actions: CASE-ASSIGN: ABSOLUTIVE
                      THETA-LINK: PATH
                      THETA-ASSIGN: THEME
    data: TENSE: NONPAST
          THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME PATH)
          AGENT: ERGATIVE
          THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
          PATH: DATIVE
          SUBJECT: AGENT
          OBJECT: PATH
    morpheme: PUNTA
    category: VERB
```

Parsing \*(NYA KI).

(NYA KI) is ungrammatical.  
The precedence structure is unconnected

Parsing \*(KU YULKA).

(KU YULKA) is ungrammatical.  
The precedence structure is unconnected.

### A.2.5 Auxiliary Composition

Parsing \*(NNA).

(NNA) is ungrammatical.  
The auxiliary has too few syllables.

Parsing \*(NLA).

(NLA) is ungrammatical.  
The auxiliary has too few syllables

Parsing \*(NNA NLA).

(NNA NLA) is ungrammatical.  
The word begins with a clitic.

Parsing \*(KA).

(KA) is ungrammatical.  
The auxiliary has too few syllables

Parsing (KA NNA).

```
PS: 0: category: AUXILIARY-BASE
      children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT:
                                AUXILIARY-DATIVE
                                AUXILIARY-SELECT:
                                AUXILIARY-OBJECT
      data: SYLLABLES: 1
      morpheme: Ka
      category: AUXILIARY-BASE

      1: lexical actions: RIGHT-ADJACENT
                                (AUXILIARY-OBJECT
                                (AUXILIARY-DATIVE)
      data: SYLLABLES: 1
      morphemes: NNA
      category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

PS: projection?: Nil
      category: AUXILIARY-BASE
      children: projection?: T
      actions: ARGUMENT: VERB
      category: AUXILIARY-BASE
      children: projection?: Nil
```

data: PERSON: 1  
 NUMBER: SINGULAR  
 morpheme: KMA  
 category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
  
 projection?: T  
 data: TENSES: (NONPAST)  
 ASPECT: IMPERFECT  
 morpheme: KA  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE

Parsing (KA KLA).

PS: 0: category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
 children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT:  
 AUXILIARY-OBJECT  
 AUXILIARY-SELECT:  
 AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
  
 data: SYLLABLES: 1  
 morpheme: KA  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
  
 1: data: SYLLABLES: 1  
 morpheme: KLA  
 category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE

SS: projection?: NIL  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
 children: projection?: T  
 actions: ARGUMENT VERB  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
 children: projection?: NIL  
 morpheme: KLA  
 category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE  
  
 projection?: T  
 data: TENSES: (NONPAST)  
 ASPECT: IMPERFECT  
 morpheme: KA  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE

Parsing (KA KMA KLA)

PS: 0: category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
 children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT:

```

                                AUXILIARY-OBJECT
data: SYLLABLES: 1
morpheme: KA
category: AUXILIARY-OBJECT

1: data: SYLLABLES: 1
morpheme: KA
category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

2: data: SYLLABLES: 1
morpheme: KA
category: AUXILIARY-OBJECT

SS: projection?: NIL
category: AUXILIARY-OBJECT
children: projection?: T
         actions: ARGUMENT: VERB
category: AUXILIARY-OBJECT
children: projection?: NIL
         morpheme: KA
category: AUXILIARY-OBJECT

projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 1
      NUMBER: SINGULAR
morpheme: KA
category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

projection?: T
data: TENSE: (NONPAST)
      ASPECT: IMPERFECT
morpheme: KA
category: AUXILIARY-OBJECT

```

Parsing •(LPA KA KA).

(LPA KA KA) is ungrammatical.  
The word begins with a clitic

Parsing •(KA KA).

(KA KA) is ungrammatical.  
The precedence structure is unconnected.

Parsing •(KA LPA).

(KA LPA) is ungrammatical.  
 The precedence structure is unconnected.

Parsing \*(KA RMA RMA).

(KA RMA RMA) is ungrammatical.  
 The precedence structure is unconnected.

## A.2.6 Continuous Case Phrases

Parsing ((YIRKINJI) (YIRMANU) (KARDIRAPA RLU)).

```

PS: 0: phrasal actions: SELECT* NOUN
      category CASE
      children: 0: morpheme: YIRKINJI
                  category: NOUN

                  1: category: CASE
                     children: 0: morpheme: YIRMANU
                                 category: NOUN

                                 1: category: CASE
                                    children: 0: morpheme: KARDIRAPA
                                                category: NOUN

                                                1: morpheme: RLU
                                                   category: CASE

SS: projection?: NIL
      category: CASE
      children: projection?: NIL
                  morpheme: YIRKINJI
                  category: NOUN

                  projection?: NIL
                     morpheme: YIRMANU
                     category: NOUN

                     projection?: NIL
                        morpheme: KARDIRAPA
                        category: NOUN

                        projection?: T
                           data CASE-MARKED NEGATIVE
                           morpheme: RLU
  
```

```

category CASE

Parsing ((YIRINJI) (YIRANU) (KARDIRPA))

PS 0: phrasal actions SELECT*, NOUN
category CASE
children 0: morpheme YIRINJI
category NOUN

1: category: CASE
children 0: morpheme YIRANU
category: NOUN

1: category CASE
children 0: morpheme: KARDIRPA
category: NOUN

1: morpheme: *ABS*
category: CASE

SS: projection*: NIL
category: CASE
children: projection?: NIL
morpheme: YIRINJI
category: NOUN

projection?: NIL
morpheme: YIRANU
category: NOUN

projection? NIL
morpheme: KARDIRPA
category: NOUN

projection?: T
data: CASE-MARKED: ABSOLUTIVE
morpheme: *ABS*
category: CASE

Parsing *((YIRINJI) (YIRANU NUN) (KARDIRPA)).

((YIRINJI) (YIRANU NUN) (KARDIRPA)) is ungrammatical.
The precedence structure is unconnected

Parsing *((YIRINJI) (NYA NYI) (KARDIRPA)).

```



{{VIRRIE/VI}} {{YA WVI}} {{KARDIANPA}} is agrammatical.  
The precedence structure is unconnected.

## A.2.7 Auxiliary Positioning

Parsing {{(MARLU KA)}} {{(YA NI)}}.

```
PS: 0: phrasal actions: SELECT: NOON
    category: CASE
    children: 0: morpheme: MARLU
              category: NOON

              1: morpheme: *4NS*
                category: CASE

    1: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-GATIVE
                      AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-OBJECT
                      AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
                      RIGHT-ADJACENT: (AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
                                      AUXILIARY-OBJECT
                                      AUXILIARY-GATIVE)

    data: SYLLABLES: 1
    morpheme: KA
    category: AUXILIARY-BASE

2: category: VERB
   children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 5
              morpheme: YA
              category: VERB

              1: data: CONJUGATION: 5
                morpheme: NI
                category: TENSE

SS: projection?: NIL
   category: AUXILIARY-BASE
   children: projection?: NIL
            data: ARGUMENT: VERB
            category: VERB
            children: projection?: NIL
                    data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THEME
                    CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTE
                    category: CASE
                    children: projection?: NIL
                            morpheme: MARLU
```

```

category: NOUN

projection?: T
data CASE-MARKED: ABSOLUTIVE
morpheme: *ABS*
category: CASE

```

```

projection?: T
category: VERB
children: projection?: T
      date: TENSE: NONPAST
      THETA-ROLES: (THEME)
      THEME ABSOLUTIVE
      SUBJECT: THEME
      morpheme: YA
      category: VERB

```

```

projection?: T
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: T
      date: TENSES: (NONPAST)
      ASPECT: IMPERFECT
      morpheme: KA
      category: AUXILIARY-BASE

```

Parsing \*(((MARLU) (KA)) ((YA NI)))

(KA) is ungrammatical.  
The auxiliary has too few syllables.

Parsing \*(((MARLU)) ((KA)) ((YA NI)))

(KA) is ungrammatical.  
The auxiliary has too few syllables

Parsing (((MARLU) (KA LU)) ((YA NI)))

```

PS. 0: phrasal sections: SELECT*: NOUN
      category: CASE
      children: 0: morpheme: MARLU
                  category: NOUN

      1: morpheme: *ABS*
          category: CASE

```

```

1: category: AUXILIARY-BASE
  children: 0 lexical entries: AUXILIARY-SELECT;
                                AUXILIARY-PATIVE
                                AUXILIARY-SELECT;
                                AUXILIARY-OBJECT
    data: SYLLABLES: 1
    morpheme: NA
    category: AUXILIARY-BASE

  1: lexical entries: RIGHT-ADJACENT
    (AUXILIARY-OBJECT
    AUXILIARY-PATIVE)
    data: SYLLABLES: 1
    morpheme: LU
    category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

2: category: VERB
  children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: B
    morpheme: YA
    category: VERB

  1: data: CONJUGATION: B
    morpheme: BI
    category: TENSE

SS: projection?: NIL
  category: AUXILIARY-BASE
  children: projection?: NIL
    data: ARGUMENT: VERB
    category: VERB
    children: projection?: NIL
      data: THETA-ASSIGNED: TENSE
      CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
      category: CASE
      children: projection?: NIL
        morpheme: BAKLU
        category: NOUN

        projection?: T
        data: CASE-MARKED: ABSOLUTIVE
        morpheme: *ABS*
        category: CASE

      projection?: T
      category: VERB

```

children: projection?: T  
 data: TENSE: NONPAST  
 TEMA-ROLES: (TEMA)  
 TEMA: ABSOLUTIVE  
 SUBJECT: TEMA  
 morpheme: YA  
 category: VERB

projection?: T  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
 children: projection?: NIL  
 data: PERSON: 3  
 NUMBER: PLURAL  
 morpheme: LU  
 category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

projection?: T  
 data: TENSE: (NONPAST)  
 ASPECT: IMPERFECT  
 morpheme: KA  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE

Parsing (((NANLU)) ((KA LU)) ((YA NI)))

PS: 0: phrasal actions: SELECT\* NOUN  
 category: CASE  
 children: 0: morpheme: NANLU  
 category: NOUN

1. morpheme: \*ANSA  
 category: CASE

1: category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
 children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT  
 AUXILIARY-DATIVE  
 AUXILIARY-SELECT.  
 AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
 data: SYLLABLES: 1  
 morpheme: KA  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE

1: lexical actions: RIGHT-ADJACENT-  
 (AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
 AUXILIARY-DATIVE)  
 data: SYLLABLES: 1

```

morpheme: 'IS'
category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

2: category: VERB
  children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 5
    morpheme: 'VA'
    category: VERB

    1: data: CONJUGATION: 5
      morpheme: 'VI'
      category: TENSE

55: projection?: NIL
  category: AUXILIARY-BASE
  children: projection?: NIL
    data: ARGUMENT: VERB
    category: VERB
    children: projection?: NIL
      data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THEME
        CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
      category: CASE
      children: projection?: NIL
        morpheme: 'MARLU'
        category: NOUN

        projection?: T
        data: CASE-MARKED: ABSOLUTIVE
        morpheme: 'ABS'
        category: CASE

      projection?: T
      category: VERB
      children: projection?: T
        data: TENSE: NONPAST
          THETA-ROLES: (THEME)
          THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
          SUBJECT: THEME
        morpheme: 'VA'
        category: VERB

    projection?: T
    category: AUXILIARY-BASE
    children: projection?: NIL
      data: PERSON: 3
        NUMBER: PLURAL

```

morpheme: LU  
 category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
  
 projection?: T  
 data: TENSES: (NONPAST)  
       ASPECT, IMPERFECT  
 morpheme NA  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE

Paraling (((NA LU)) ((MARLU)) ((YA MI))).

PS O: category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
     children: O: lexical actions   AUXILIARY-SELECT:  
                                     AUXILIARY-DATIVE  
                                     AUXILIARY-SELECT:  
                                     AUXILIARY-OBJECT  
  
     data: SYLLABLES: 1  
     morpheme NA  
     category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
  
     1: lexical actions: RIGHT-ADJACENT:  
                             (AUXILIARY-OBJECT  
                             AUXILIARY-DATIVE)  
  
     data: SYLLABLES 1  
     morpheme LU  
     category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
  
     1: phrasal actions. SELECT\* NOUN  
        category. CASE  
        children. O: morpheme MARLU  
                    category: NOUN  
  
            1: morpheme +JRS\*  
               category: CASE  
  
     2: category: VERS  
        children. O: data: CONJUGATION 8  
                    morpheme: YA  
                    category: VERB  
  
            1: data: CONJUGATION. 8  
               morpheme MI  
               category TENSE

SS: projection?: NIL

```

category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: NIL
  data: ARGUMENT VERN
  category: VERN
  children: projection?: NIL
    data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THEME
      CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
    category: CASE
    children: projection?: NIL
      morpheme: MARLO
      category: NOUN

      projection?: T
      data: CASE-MARKED: ABSOLUTIVE
      morpheme: *ABS*
      category: CASE

    projection?: T
    category: VERN
    children: projection?: T
      data: TENSE: NONPAST
        THETA-ROLES: (THEME)
        THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
        SUBJECT: THEME
      morpheme: YA
      category: VERB

  projection?: T
  category: AUXILIARY-BASE
  children: projection?: NIL
    data: PERSON: 3
      NUMBER: PLURAL
    morpheme: LU
    category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

    projection?: T
    data: TENSES: (NONPAST)
      ASPECT: IMPERFECT
    morpheme: KA
    category: AUXILIARY-BASE

```

Parsing \*(((MARLO)) ((YA NI)) ((NA LU)))

((MARLO)) ((YA NI)) ((NA LU)) is ungrammatical.  
The auxiliary is not in the proper position.

### A.2.8 Free Phrase Order

Parsing (((NGAJULU ELU) (KA RAA RLA)) ((PUNTA RMI)) ((KUNGU KU)  
((HAAULI))).

P3: 0: phrasal actions: SELECT\*: NOUN  
category: CASE  
children: 0: morpheme: NGAJULU  
category: NOUN  
  
1: morpheme: ELU  
category: CASE  
  
1: category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT.  
AUXILIARY-OBJECT  
data: SYLLABLES: 1  
morpheme: KA  
category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
  
1. data: SYLLABLES: 1  
morpheme: RAA  
category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
  
2: data: SYLLABLES: 1  
morpheme: RLA  
category: AUXILIARY-OBJECT  
  
2: category: VERB  
children: 0: data CONJUGATION: 2  
morpheme: PONTA  
category: VERB  
  
1: data CONJUGATION: 2  
morpheme: RMI  
category: TENSE  
  
3: phrasal actions: SELECT\*: NOUN  
category: CASE  
children: 0: morpheme: KUNGU  
category: NOUN  
  
1: morpheme: KU  
category: CASE  
  
4: phrasal actions: SELECT\*: NOUN



```

category: CASE
children: 0: morpheme: KARLI
           category: NOUN

           1: morpheme: *ABS*
             category: CASE

33: projection?: NIL
   category: AUXILIARY-BASE
   children: projection?: NIL
            data: ARGUMENT?: VERB
            category: VERB
            children: projection?: NIL
                     data: THETA-ASSIGNED: AGENT
                           CASE-ASSIGNED: ERGATIVE
                     category: CASE
                     children: projection?: NIL
                              data: VERSION: 1
                                    NUMBER: (SINGULAR)
                              morpheme: NGAFULU
                              category: NOUN

                              projection?: T
                              data: CASE-MARKED: ERGATIVE
                              morpheme: NLU
                              category: CASE

           projection?: T
           category: VERB
           children: projection?: NIL
                    data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THEME
                          CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
                    category: CASE
                    children: projection?: NIL
                             morpheme: KARLI
                             category: NOUN

                             projection?: T
                             data: CASE-MARKED:
                                   ABSOLUTIVE
                             morpheme: *ABS*
                             category: CASE

           projection?: NIL
           data: THETA-LINKED: PATH

```

```

category CASE
children projection?: NIL
morpheme: FUNDU
category: NOUN

projection?: T
data CASE-ASSIGNED:
    DATIVE
CASE-MARKED:
    DATIVE
THETA-ASSIGNED:
    PATH
morpheme: KU
category: CASE

projection?: T
data TENSE: NONPAST
    THETA-ROLES (AGENT THEME
        PATH)
    AGENT, NEGATIVE
    THEME ABSOLUTIVE
    PATH, DATIVE
    SUBJECT: AGENT
    OBJECT, PATH
morpheme: FUNTA
category: VERB

projection?: T
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children projection?: NIL
morpheme: XLI
category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE

projection?: NIL
data PERSON: 1
    NUMBER: SINGULAR
morpheme: SMA
category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

projection?: T
data TENSES: (NONPAST)
    ASPECT, IMPERFECT
morpheme: KA
category: AUXILIARY-BASE

```

Parsing (((NGAJULU KLU) (KA HNA KLA)) ((KURDU KU)) ((KARLI))  
 ((PUNTA RNL))).

PS: 0: phraseal actions: SELECT\*. NOUN

category CASE

children: 0: morpheme NGAJULU

category: NOUN

I: morpheme KLU

category: CASE

1: category AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT-  
 AUXILIARY-OBJECT

data: SYLLABLES: I

morpheme: KA

category: AUXILIARY-NASH

I: data: SYLLABLES: I

morpheme: HNA

category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

2: data: SYLLABLES: 1

morpheme: KLA

category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE

2: phraseal actions: SELECT\*. NOUN

category CASE

children: 0: morpheme: KURDU

category: NOUN

I: morpheme: KU

category: CASE

3: phraseal actions: SELECT\*. NOUN

category CASE

children: 0: morpheme: KARLI

category: NOUN

I: morpheme: \*ARS\*

category CASE

4: category: VERB

children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 2

morpheme: PUNTA

```

category: VERB

1' data: CONJUGATION: 2
morpheme: NNI
category: TENSE

55. projection?: NIL
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: NIL
data: ARGUMENT: VERB
category: VERB
children: projection?: NIL
data: THETA-ASSIGNED: AGENT
CASE-ASSIGNED: NEGATIVE
category: CASE
children: projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 1
NUMBER: (SINGULAR)
morpheme: NCAJULO
category: NOUN

projection?: T
data: CASE-MARKED: NEGATIVE
morpheme: NIU
category: CASE

projection?: T
category: VERB
children: projection?: NIL
data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THEME
CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
category: CASE
children: projection?: NIL
morpheme: NAALI
category: NOUN

projection?: T
data: CASE-MARKED:
ABSOLUTIVE
morpheme: aISE
category: CASE

projection?: NIL
data: THETA-LINKED: PATR
category: CASE

```

children: projection?: NIL  
           morpheme: KURDO  
           category: NOUN  
  
           projection?: T  
           data: CASE-ASSIGNED:  
                   DATIVE  
                   CASE-MARKED:  
                     DATIVE  
                   THETA-ASSIGNED:  
                     PATH  
           morpheme: KU  
           category: CASE  
  
 projection?: T  
 data: TENSE: NONPAST  
       THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME  
                     PATH)  
       AGENT: NEGATIVE  
       THEME: ABSOLUTIVE  
       PATH: DATIVE  
       SUBJECT: AGENT  
       OBJECT: PATH  
 morpheme: PUNTA  
 category: VERB

projection?: T  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
 children: projection?: NIL  
           morpheme: NIA  
           category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE

projection?: NIL  
 data: PERSON: 1  
       NUMBER: SINGULAR  
 morpheme: RMA  
 category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

projection?: T  
 data: TENSES: (NONPAST)  
       ASPECT: IMPERFECT  
 morpheme: KA  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE

Parsing ((KURDO KU) (KA RMA NIA)) ((PUNTA RMI)) ((NGAJURU RLO))

((KARLI))).

PS: 0: phrasal actions: SELECT\* NOUN

category: CASE

children: 0: morpheme: KUNDU

category: NOUN

1: morpheme: KU

category: CASE

I: category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT:  
AUXILIARY-OBJECT

data: SYLLABLES: I

morpheme: NA

category: AUXILIARY-BASE

1: data: SYLLABLES: I

morpheme: NA

category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

2: data: SYLLABLES: I

morpheme: NA

category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE

2: category: VERB

children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 2

morpheme: FONTA

category: VERB

1: data: CONJUGATION: 2

morpheme: MI

category: TENSE

3: phrasal actions: SELECT\* NOUN

category: CASE

children: 0: morpheme: NGAJULU

category: NOUN

1: morpheme: LU

category: CASE

4: phrasal actions: SELECT\* NOUN

category: CASE

children: 0: morpheme: KARLI

```

category: NOUN

1: morpheme: *ABS*
category: CASE

55: projection?: NIL
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: NIL
data: ARGUMENT: VERB
category: VERB
children: projection?: NIL
data: THETA-ASSIGNED: AGENT
CASE-ASSIGNED: NEGATIVE
category: CASE
children: projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 1
NUMBER: (SINGULAR)
morpheme: NCAJULU
category: NOUN

projection?: T
data: CASE-MARKED: NEGATIVE
morpheme: ILSI
category: CASE

projection?: T
category: VERB
children: projection?: NIL
data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THEME
CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTE
category: CASE
children: projection?: NIL
morpheme: KAKLI
category: NOUN

projection?: T
data: CASE-MARKED:
ABSOLUTE
morpheme: *ABS*
category: CASE

projection?: NIL
data: THETA-LINKED: PATH
category: CASE
children: projection?: NIL

```

```

morpheme KUNDU
category NOUN

projection?: T
data: CASE-ASSIGNED:
      DATIVE
      CASE-MARKED:
      DATIVE
      THEME-ASSIGNED:
      PATH
morpheme KU
category: CASE

projection?: T
data: TENSE: NONPAST
      THEME-ROLES: (AGENT THEME
                    PATH)
      AGENT: ERGATIVE
      THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
      PATH: DATIVE
      SUBJECT: AGENT
      OBJECT: PATH
morpheme: PUNTA
category: VERB

projection?: T
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: NIL
morpheme: NLA
category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE

projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: I
      NUMBER: SINGULAR
morpheme: NNA
category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

projection?: T
data: TENSES: (NONPAST)
      ASPECT: IMPERFECT
morpheme: Ka
category: AUXILIARY-BASE

Parsing (((KARLI) (KA NNA NLA)) ((NGAJULU KUUT)) ((KUNDU KU))
          ((PUNTA NNI))).

```



PS: 0: phrasal actions: SELECT\*: NOUN  
     category: CASE  
     children: 0: morpheme: MANLI  
               category: NOUN  
               1: morpheme: \*ASS\*  
               category: CASE  
     1: category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
        children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT:  
                                     AUXILIARY-OBJECT  
                   data: SYLLABLES: 1  
                   morpheme: KA  
                   category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
                   1: data: SYLLABLES: 1  
                   morpheme: MA  
                   category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
                   2. data: SYLLABLES: 1  
                   morpheme: LA  
                   category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE  
     2: phrasal actions: SELECT\*: NOUN  
        category: CASE  
        children: 0: morpheme: MGAJULU  
                   category: NOUN  
                   1: morpheme: ALU  
                   category: CASE  
     3: phrasal actions: SELECT\*: NOUN  
        category: CASE  
        children: 0: morpheme: KUNGU  
                   category: NOUN  
                   1: morpheme: KU  
                   category: CASE  
     4. category: VERB  
        children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 2  
                   morpheme: FUNTA  
                   category: VERB  
                   1. data: CONJUGATION: 2

```

morpheme: RM1
category: TENSE

SS: projection?: NIL
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: NIL
         data: ARGUMENT: VERB
         category: VERB
         children: projection?: NIL
                   data: THETA-ASSIGNED: AGENT
                   CASE-ASSIGNED: NEGATIVE
                   category: CASE
                   children: projection?: NIL
                             data: PERSON: 1
                             NUMBER: (SINGULAR)
                             morpheme: SHOULD
                             category: MODAL

                             projection?: T
                             data: CASE-MARKED: NEGATIVE
                             morpheme: NOT
                             category: CASE

projection?: T
category: VERB
children: projection?: NIL
         data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THEME
         CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
         category: CASE
         children: projection?: NIL
                   morpheme: EARLY
                   category: MODAL

                   projection?: T
                   data: CASE-MARKED:
                       ABSOLUTIVE
                   morpheme: ABS*
                   category: CASE

projection?: NIL
data: THETA-LINKED: PATH
category: CASE
children: projection?: NIL
         morpheme: SUNDAY
         category: MODAL

```

```

        projection?: T
        data: CASE-ASSIGNED:
            DATIVE
            CASE-MARKED:
                DATIVE
            THETA-ASSIGNED:
                PATH
        morpheme: KU
        category: CASE

    projection?: T
    data: TENSE: BENPAST
        THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME
            PATH)
        AGENT: ERGATIVE
        THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
        PATH: DATIVE
        SUBJECT: AGENT
        OBJECT: PATH
    morpheme: PONTA
    category: VERB

    projection?: T
    category: AUXILIARY-BASE
    children: projection?: NIL
        morpheme: BLA
        category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE

    projection?: NIL
    data: PERSON: 1
        NUMBER: SINGULAR
    morpheme: HRA
    category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

    projection?: T
    data: TENSES: (BENPAST)
        ASPECT: IMPERFECT
    morpheme: KI
    category: AUXILIARY-BASE

```

### A.2.9 Argument Identification

Parsing (((MGAJULO BLU) (KA HRA BLA)) ((PONTA HRI)) ((HIMDU KU)) ((KARLI))).

FATH projection?: NIL  
morpheme: KUNDU  
category: NOUN

THEME projection?: NIL  
morpheme: KARLI  
category: NOUN

AGENT projection?: NIL  
data PERSON: 1  
NUMBER: (SINGULAR)  
morpheme: NGAJULU  
category: NOUN

Parsing (((NGAJULU NLU) (NA NNA NLA)) ((KUNDU NU)) ((KARLI))  
((PUNTA NNI))).

FATH projection?: NIL  
morpheme: KUNDU  
category: NOUN

THEME projection?: NIL  
morpheme: KARLI  
category: NOUN

AGENT projection?: NIL  
data PERSON: A  
NUMBER: (SINGULAR)  
morpheme NGAJULU  
category: NOUN

Parsing (((KUNDU NU) (NA NNA NLA)) ((PUNTA NNI)) ((NGAJULU NLU))  
((KARLI))).

FATH projection?: NIL  
morpheme: KUNDU  
category: NOUN

THEME projection?: NIL  
morpheme: KARLI  
category: NOUN

AGENT projection?: NIL  
data: PERSON: 1  
NUMBER: (SINGULAR)

```

morpheme NGAJULU
category: NOUN

Parsing (((NABLI) (KA NNA PLI)) ((NGAJULU BLU)) ((KURDO KU))
      ((PUNTA NYI))).

PATH: projection?: NIL
      morpheme: KURDO
      category: NOUN

THEME: projection?: NIL
       morpheme: NABLI
       category: NOUN

AGENT: projection?: NIL
       data: PERSON I
           NUMBER: (SINGULAR)
       morpheme: NGAJULU
       category: NOUN

```

#### A.2.10 Null Auxiliary Components

```

Parsing (((MARLU BLU KA)) ((NYA NYI)) ((KURDO))).

PS: 0: phrasal actions: SELECT=: NOUN
      category: CASE
      children: 0: morphemes: MARLU
                  category: NOUN

                  I: morphemes: BLU
                    category: CASE

I: Isical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-DATIVE
                  AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
                  AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
                  RIGHT-ADJACENT: (AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
                                   AUXILIARY-OBJECT
                                   AUXILIARY-DATIVE)

data: SYLLABLES: 1
      morpheme: NI
      category: AUXILIARY-CASE

2: category: VERB
  children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 3
              morphemes: NYA
              category: VERB

```

```

1. data CONJUNCTION: 3
   morpheme MYI
   category TENSE

3: phrasal actions SELECT* NOUN
   category CASE
   children: 0: morpheme KURDU
              category NOUN

1: morpheme *ARS*
   category CASE

SS. projection?: NIL
   category AUXILIARY-BASE
   children: projection?: NIL
            data ARGUMENT: VERB
            category VERB
            children: projection?: NIL
                     data THETA-ASSIGNED: AGENT
                     CASE-ASSIGNED: ERGATIVE
                     category CASE
                     children: projection?: NIL
                              morpheme MARLO
                              category NOUN

                     projection?: Y
                     data CASE-MARKED: ERGATIVE
                     morpheme RU
                     category CASE

projection?: Y
category: VERB
children: projection?: NIL
         data THETA-ASSIGNED: THEME
         CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
         category CASE
         children: projection?: NIL
                  morpheme KURDU
                  category NOUN

projection?: Y
data CASE-MARKED: ABSOLUTIVE
morpheme *ARS*
category CASE

```

```

projection? T
data: TENSE: NONPAST
      THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME)
      AGENT: ERGATIVE
      THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
      SUBJECT: AGENT
      OBJECT: THEME
morpheme: NYA
category: VERB

```

```

projection? T
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children:
  projection? T
    data: TENSES: (NONPAST)
          ASPECT: IMPERFECT
    morpheme: KA
    category: AUXILIARY-BASE

```

Parsing (((MGAJULU KLU KA NNA)) ((NYA NYI)) ((KUNUDU))).

```

P0: 0: phrasal actions: SELECT= NOUN
    category: CASE
    children: 0: morpheme: MGAJULU
              category: NOUN

```

```

1: morpheme: KLU
   category: CASE

```

```

3: category: AUXILIARY-BASE
   children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT:
                        AUXILIARY-DATIVE
                        AUXILIARY-SELECT:
                        AUXILIARY-OBJECT
    data: SYLLABLES: 1
    morpheme: KA
    category: AUXILIARY-BASE
    1: lexical actions: RIGHT-ADJACENT
      (AUXILIARY-OBJECT
       AUXILIARY-DATIVE)
      data: SYLLABLES 1
      morpheme: NNA
      category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
    2: category: VERB

```

```

children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 3
             morpheme: NYA
             category: VERB

             1: data: CONJUGATION: 3
             morpheme: NYI
             category: TENSE

3. phrasal actions: SELECT* NOUN
category: CASE
children: 0: morpheme: XURBU
             category: NOUN

             1: morpheme: *ABS*
             category: CASE

55- projection?: NIL
category: AUXILIARY-NASE
children: projection?: NIL
             data: ARGUMENT: VERB
             category: VERB
             children: projection?: NIL
                     Meta THETA-ASSIGNED AGENT
                     CASE-ASSIGNED: NEGATIVE
                     category: CASE
                     children: projection?: NIL
                             data: PERSON: 1
                             NUMBER (SINGULAR)
                             morpheme: SOAJULO
                             category: NOUN

                             projection?: Y
                             data: CASE-MARKED: NEGATIVE
                             morpheme: NLU
                             category: CASE

                     projection?: Y
                     category: VERB
                     children: projection?: NIL
                             data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THEME
                             CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
                             category: CASE
                             children: projection?: NIL
                                     morpheme: XURBU
                                     category: NOUN

```



```

projection?: T
data: CASE-MARKED:
    ABSOLUTIVE
morpheme: *ABS*
category: CASE

projection?: T
data: TENSE: NONPAST
    TEMA-ROLES: (AGENT TEMPL)
    AGENT: NEGATIVE
    THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
    SUBJECT: AGENT
    OBJECT: THEME
morpheme: NYA
category: VERB

projection?: T
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: I
    NUMBER: SINGULAR
morpheme: RMA
category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

projection?: T
data: TENSE: (NONPAST)
    ASPECT: IMPERFECT
morpheme: NA
category: AUXILIARY-BASE

Parsing (((NGAJULU NLU KA RMA NGU)) ((NYA NYI)) ((HYUNTULU))).

p5: 0: phrasal actions: SELECT*: NOUN
category: CASE
children: 0: morpheme: NGAJULU
category: NOUN

1: morpheme: NLU
category: CASE

1: category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT:
    AUXILIARY-DATIVE
data: SYLLABLES: 1
morpheme: KA

```

```

category: AUXILIARY-BASE

1: data: SYLLABLES: 1
morpheme: NNA
category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

2: lexical actions: RIGHT-ADJUNCT-
(AUXILIARY-DATIVE)
data: SYLLABLES: 1
morpheme: NGU
category: AUXILIARY-OBJECT

2: category: VERB
children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 3
morpheme: NYA
category: VERB

1: data: CONJUGATION: 3
morpheme: NYI
category: TENSE

3: phrasal actions: SELECT: NOUN
category: CASE
children: 0: morpheme: NYUNTULU
category: NOUN

1: morpheme: *AES*
category: CASE

55 projection?: NIL
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: NIL
data: ARGUMENT: VERB
category: VERB
children: projection?: NIL
data: TMTA-ASSIGNED: AGENT
CASE-ASSIGNED: NEGATIVE
category: CASE
children: projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 1
NUMBER: (SINGULAR)
morpheme: NGAJULU
category: NOUN

projection?: T

```

```

data: CASE-MARKED: NEGATIVE
morpheme: NIS
category: CASE

projection?: T
category: VERB
children: projection?: NIL
data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THEME
CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
category: CASE
children: projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 2
NUMBER: (SINGULAR)
morpheme: SIFUTULU
category: NOUN

projection?: T
data: CASE-MARKED:
ABSOLUTIVE
morpheme: ABS-
category: CASE

projection?: T
data: TENSE: NONPAST
THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME)
AGENT: NEGATIVE
THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
SUBJECT: AGENT
OBJECT: THEME
morpheme: NYA
category: VERB

projection?: T
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 2
NUMBER: SINGULAR
morpheme: NUNU
category: AUXILIARY-OBJECT

projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 1
NUMBER: SINGULAR
morpheme: NA
category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

```

```

projectionY: T
data: TENSES. (NONPAST)
      ASPECT: IMPERFECT
morpheme: NA
category: AUXILIARY-BASE

```

Parsing \*(((NGAJULU RLU NA NGUJ)) ((NYA NYI)) ((NYUNTULU)))

(((NGAJULU RLU KA NGUJ)) ((NYA NYI)) ((NYUNTULU))) is ungrammatical.  
The DEFAULT-AUXILIARY clitic does not agree in person with the  
SUBJECT.

Parsing \*(((NGAJULU RLU KA RMA)) ((NYA NYI)) ((NYUNTULU)))

(((NGAJULU RLU KA RMA)) ((NYA NYI)) ((NYUNTULU))) is ungrammatical.  
The DEFAULT-AUXILIARY clitic does not agree in person with the  
OBJECT.

#### A.2.11 Null Anaphora

Parsing (((NYA NYI KA)) ((KURDU))).

```

PS. 0: category: VERB
      children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 3
                  morpheme: NYA
                  category: VERB

      1: data: CONJUGATION 3
          morpheme: NYI
          category: TENSE

      1: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-DATIVE
                        AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-OBJECT
                        AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
                        RIGHT-ADJACENT: (AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
                                      AUXILIARY-OBJECT
                                      AUXILIARY-DATIVE)

      data SYLLABLES: 1
      morpheme: NA
      category: AUXILIARY-BASE

      2: phraseal actions: SELECT: NOUN
      category: CASE
      children: 0: morpheme: KURDU
                  category: NOUN

```

```

1: morpheme: *ARS*
   category: CASE

SS. projection?: NIL
   category: AUXILIARY-BASE
   children:
     projection?: NIL
     data: ARGUMENT: VERB
     category: VERB
     children:
       projection?: T
       actions: CASE-ASSIGN NEGATIVE
                THETA-ASSIGN. AGENT
       category: VERB
       children:
         projection?: NIL
         data: THETA-ASSIGNED- THEME
              CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
         category: CASE
         children:
           projection?: NIL
           morpheme: NUNBO
           category: NOUN

           projection?: T
           data: CASE-MARKED:
                ABSOLUTIVE
           morpheme: *ARS*
           category: CASE

           projection?: T
           data: TENSE: NONPAST
                THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME)
                AGENT: NEGATIVE
                THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
                SUBJECT: AGENT
                OBJECT: THEME
           morpheme: NYA
           category: VERB

           projection?: T
           category: AUXILIARY-BASE
           children:
             projection?: T
             data: TENSES: (NONPAST)
                   ASPECT: IMPERFECT
             morpheme: KA
             category: AUXILIARY-BASE

```

Forming ((NYA NYI KA)).

```

PS. On category: VERB
  children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 3
            morpheme: NTA
            category: VERB

      I: data: CONJUGATION: 3
        morpheme: N1
        category: TENSE

    I: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-DATIVE
                      AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-OBJECT
                      AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
                      RIGHT-ADJACENT: (AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
                                      AUXILIARY-OBJECT
                                      AUXILIARY-DATIVE)

      data: SYLLABLES: 1
      morpheme: EA
      category: AUXILIARY-FASE

35- projection?: NIL
   category: AUXILIARY-FASE
   children: projection?: NIL
            data: ARGUMENT: VERB
            category: VERB
            children: projection?: T
                     actions: CASE-ASSIGN: EMGATIVE
                              THETA-ASSIGN: AGENT
                     category: VERB
                     children: projection?: T
                              actions: CASE-ASSIGN: ABSOLUTIVE
                                       THETA-ASSIGN: THEME
                              data: TENSE: NONPAST
                                       THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME)
                                       AGENT: EMGATIVE
                                       THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
                                       SUBJECT: AGENT
                                       OBJECT: THEME
                              morpheme: EVA
                              category: VERB

      projection?: T
      category: AUXILIARY-FASE
      children: projection?: T
               data: TENSES: (NONPAST)
                     ASPECT: IMPERFECT

```

```

morpheme: KA
category: AUXILIARY-BASE

Parsing (((KA NNA NGKU)) ((NYA NYI)) ((NYUNTULU))).

PS 0: category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT
  children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT:
    AUXILIARY-DATIVE
    data: SYLLABLES: 1
    morpheme: KA
    category: AUXILIARY-BASE

    1: data: SYLLABLES: 1
    morpheme: NNA
    category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

    2: lexical actions: RIGHT-ADJACENT:
      (AUXILIARY-DATIVE)
      data: SYLLABLES: 1
      morpheme: NGKU
      category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

  1: category: VERB
    children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 3
    morpheme: NYA
    category: VERB

    1: data: CONJUGATION: 3
    morpheme: NYI
    category: TENSE

  2: phraseal actions: SELECT: NOUN
    category: CASH
    children: 0: morpheme: NYUNTULU
    category: NOUN

    1. morpheme: *a35*
    category: CASH

SS: projection?: NIL
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: NIL
data: ARGUMENT: VERB
category: VERB
children: projection?: 1

```

```

actions: CASE=ASSIGN- ERGATIVE
        THETA=ASSIGN AGENT
category: VERB
children: projection?: NIL
        data: THETA=ASSIGNED: THEME
              CASE=ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
              category: CASE
              children: projection?: NIL
                      data: PERSON: 2
                          NUMBER: (SINGULAR)
                          morpheme: BYUNTULU
                          category: NOUN

                      projection?: T
                      data: CASE=MARKED:
                          ABSOLUTIVE
                          morpheme: *ABS*
                          category: CASE

                      projection?: T
                      data: TENSE: NONPAST
                          THETA=ROLES: (AGENT THEME)
                          AGENT: ERGATIVE
                          THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
                          SUBJECT: AGENT
                          OBJECT: THEME
                      morpheme: NYA
                      category: VERB

projection?: T
category: AUXILIARY=BASE
children: projection?: NIL
        data: PERSON: 2
              NUMBER: SINGULAR
              morpheme: NGUO
              category: AUXILIARY=OBJECT

projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 1
      NUMBER: SINGULAR
      morpheme: UNA
      category: AUXILIARY=SUBJECT

projection?: T
data: TENSES: (NONPAST)

```



ASPECT: IMPERFECT  
 morpheme: KA  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE

Parsing (((BGAJULU KLU NA NGA NGNU)) ((MTA MTI))).

PS: 0: phrasal actions: SELECT\*: BOUN  
 category: CASE  
 children: 0: morpheme: BGAJULU  
 category: BOUN

1: morpheme: KLU  
 category: CASE

1: category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
 children: 0: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT:  
 AUXILIARY-DATIVE  
 data SYLLABLES: 1  
 morpheme: KA  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE

1: data SYLLABLES: 1  
 morpheme: NGA  
 category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

2: lexical actions: RIGHT-ADJACENT  
 (AUXILIARY-DATIVE)  
 data SYLLABLES: 1  
 morpheme: NGNU  
 category: AUXILIARY-OBJECT

2: category: VERB  
 children: 0: data CONJUGATION: 3  
 morpheme: MTA  
 category: VERB

1: data CONJUGATION: 3  
 morpheme: MTI  
 category: TENSE

PS projection\*: NIL  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE  
 children: projection\*: NIL  
 data: ARGUMENT: VERB  
 category: VERB

children projection?: NIL  
 data: THETA-ASSIGNED: AGENT  
 CASE-ASSIGNED: NEGATIVE  
 category: CASE  
 children: projection?: NIL  
 data: PERSON 1  
 NUMBER (SINGULAR)  
 morpheme NGAJULU  
 category: NOUN  
  
 projection?: T  
 data: CASE-MARKED: NEGATIVE  
 morpheme RED  
 category: CASE  
  
 projection?: T  
 category: VERB  
 children: projection?: T  
 actions: CASE-ASSIGN ABSOLUTIVE  
 THETA-ASSIGN: THEME  
 data: TENSE: NONPAST  
 THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME)  
 AGENT NEGATIVE  
 THEME: ABSOLUTIVE  
 SUBJECT: AGENT  
 OBJECT: THEME  
 morpheme: NTA  
 category: VERB  
  
 projection?: T  
 category: AUXILIARY-VAE  
 children: projection?: NIL  
 data: PERSON 2  
 NUMBER: SINGULAR  
 morpheme MINU  
 category: AUXILIARY-OBJECT  
  
 projection?: NIL  
 data: PERSON 1  
 NUMBER: SINGULAR  
 morpheme: NVA  
 category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
  
 projection?: T  
 data: TENSES: (NONPAST)

ASPECT: IMPERFECT  
 morpheme: BA  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE

#### A.2.12 Too Many Arguments

Parsing =(((YA HI KA)) ((NGAJULU BLU)) ((KURDU KU)) ((KARLI))).

(((YA HI KA)) ((NGAJULU BLU)) ((KURDU KU)) ((KARLI))) is ungrammatical.  
 The syntactic structure is unconnected

Parsing =(((YA HI KA)) ((KURDU KU)) ((KARLI))).

(((YA HI KA)) ((KURDU KU)) ((KARLI))) is ungrammatical.  
 The syntactic structure is unconnected.

Parsing (((YA HI KA)) ((KURDU))).

PS. 0: category: VERB  
 children. 0: data: CONJUGATION: 5  
                   morpheme: YA  
                   category: VERB

1: data: CONJUGATION: 5  
           morpheme: HI  
           category: TENSE

1: lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-DATIVE  
                           AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-OBJECT  
                           AUXILIARY-SELECT: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
                           RIGHT-ADJACENT: (AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
   AUXILIARY-OBJECT  
   AUXILIARY-DATIVE)

data: SYLLABLES: 1  
 morpheme: BA  
 category: AUXILIARY-BASE

2: phraseal actions: SELECT\*: NGUN  
 category: CASE  
 children. 0: morpheme: KURDU  
                   category: NGUN

1: morpheme: \*AKS\*  
 category: CASE

```

SS. projection?: NIL
   category: AUXILIARY-BASE
   children: projection?: NIL
             data: ARGUMENT: YEAR
             category: YEAR
             children: projection?: NIL
                       data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THROW
                           CASE-ASSIGNER: ABSOLUTE
                           category: CASE
                           children: projection?: NIL
                                   morpheme: THROW
                                   category: NOUN

                               projection?: T
                               data: CASE-MARKED: ABSOLUTE
                               morpheme: *ABS*
                               category: CASE

               projection?: T
               category: YEAR
               children: projection?: T
                       data: TENSE: NONPAST
                           THETA-ROLES: (THROW)
                           TENSE: ABSOLUTE
                           SUBJECT: THROW
                           morpheme: YA
                           category: YEAR

           projection?: T
           category: AUXILIARY-BASE
           children: projection?: T
                   data: TENSE: (NONPAST)
                       ASPECT: IMPERFECT
                       morpheme: NA
                       category: AUXILIARY-BASE

```

### A.2.13 Case Marking

Parsing {{{KA NNA NOKU NLA}}} {{YULNA NI}}} {{NGAJULU}}  
 {{{BYUWUTULU XU}}}.

```

PS 0: category: AUXILIARY-OBJECT
   children: 0. data: SYLLABLES: 1
              morpheme: NA
              category: AUXILIARY-BASE

```

```

1: data: SYLLABLES: 1
   morpheme: NNA
   category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

2: data: SYLLABLES: 1
   morpheme: NOKU
   category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

3: data: SYLLABLES: 1
   morpheme: NIA
   category: AUXILIARY-OATIVE

1: category: VERB
  children: 0: data: CONJUGATION: 1
             morpheme: YUKA
             category: VERB

             1: data: CONJUGATION: 1
                morpheme: NI
                category: TENSE

2: phraseal actions: SELECT*, NOUN
   category: CASE
   children: 0: morpheme: NGAJULU
              category: NOUN

             1: morpheme: +ANG*
              category: CASE

3: phraseal actions: SELECT*, NOUN
   category: CASE
   children: 0: morpheme: NYUNTULU
              category: NOUN

             1: morpheme: KU
              category: CASE

SS: projection?: NIL
   category: AUXILIARY-BASE
   children: projection?: NIL
            data: ARGUMENT: VERB
            category: VERB
            children: projection?: NIL
                     data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THREE
                     CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE

```

```

category: CASE
children: projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 1
      NUMBER: (SINGULAR)
morpheme: NGATJULU
category: NOUN

projection?: T
data: CASE-MARKED: ABSOLUTIVE
morpheme: *ABS*
category: CASE

projection?: T
category: VERB
children: projection?: NIL
data: THEME-LINKED: PATH
category: CASE
children: projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 2
      NUMBER: (SINGULAR)
morpheme: NYUTJULU
category: NOUN

projection?: T
data: CASE-ASSIGNED:
      DATIVE
      CASE-MARKED: DATIVE
      THEME-ASSIGNED:
      PATH
morpheme: KU
category: CASE

projection?: T
data: TENSE: NONPAST
      THEME-ROLES: (THEME PATH)
      THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
      PATH: DATIVE
      SUBJECT: THEME
      OBJECT: PATH
morpheme: YULKA
category: VERB

projection?: T
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: NIL

```

```

morpheme: KLA
category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE

projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 2
      NUMBER: SINGULAR
morpheme: NGKU
category: AUXILIARY-OBJECT

projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 1
      NUMBER: SINGULAR
morpheme: NNA
category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

projection?: T
data: TENSES: (MODFAST)
      ASPECT: IMPERFECT
morpheme: KA
category: AUXILIARY-BASE

```

Parsing \*(((KA NNA NGKU KLA)) ((YULKA NI)) ((NGAJULU NLU))  
 ((NYUNTULU)))

(((KA NNA NGKU KLA)) ((YULKA NI)) ((NGAJULU NLU)) ((NYUNTULU))) is  
 ungrammatical.  
 The syntactic structure is unconnected.

Parsing \*(((KA NNA NGKU KLA)) ((YULKA NI)) ((NGAJULU KU))  
 ((NYUNTULU NLU)))

(((KA NNA NGKU KLA)) ((YULKA NI)) ((NGAJULU KU)) ((NYUNTULU NLU))) is  
 ungrammatical.  
 The syntactic structure is unconnected.

#### A.2.14 Auxiliary Base Agreement

Parsing \*(((NGAJULU NLU LPA NNA KLA)) ((PUNTA NNI)) ((KURDU KU))  
 ((NARLI)))

(((NGAJULU NLU LPA NNA KLA)) ((PUNTA NNI)) ((KURDU KU)) ((NARLI))) is  
 ungrammatical.  
 The tenses of LPA and PUNTA do not match.

Parsing (((NGAJULU NLU LPA NNA KLA)) ((PUNTA NNU)) ((KURDU KU))  
 ((NARLI)))

PS. 0. phrasal actions. SELECT\*: NOUN  
category. CASE  
children: 0. morpheme: NGAJULS  
category: NOUN

1. morpheme: NLS  
category: CASE

1. category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
children: 0. lexical actions: AUXILIARY-SELECT.  
AUXILIARY-SUBJECT  
data: SYLLABLES: 1  
morpheme: LPA  
category: AUXILIARY-BASE

1. data: SYLLABLES: 1  
morpheme: BNA  
category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

2. data: SYLLABLES: 1  
morpheme: SLA  
category: AUXILIARY-GENITIVE

2. category: VERB  
children: 0. data: CONJUGATION: 2  
morpheme: FUMTA  
category: VERB

1. data: CONJUGATION: 2  
morpheme: EMU  
category: TENSE

3. phrasal actions. SELECT\*: NOUN  
category: CASE  
children: 0. morpheme: KUNVS  
category: NOUN

1. morpheme: KU  
category: CASE

4. phrasal actions: SELECT\*: NOUN  
category: CASE  
children: 0. morpheme: KILLI  
category: NOUN



```

        i: morpheme: *ABS*
          category: CASE

33. projection?: NIL
    category: AUXILIARY-NASS
    children: projection?: NIL
      data: ARGUMENT: VERB
      category: VERB
      children: projection?: NIL
        data: THETA-ASSIGNED: AGENT
        CASE-ASSIGNED: NEGATIVE
        category: CASE
        children: projection?: NIL
          data: PERSON: 1
          NUMBER: (SINGULAR)
          morpheme: EGAFULU
          category: NOUN

          projection?: T
          data: CASE-MARKED: NEGATIVE
          morpheme: ENU
          category: CASE

        projection?: T
        category: VERB
        children: projection?: NIL
          data: THETA-ASSIGNED: THEME
          CASE-ASSIGNED: ABSOLUTIVE
          category: CASE
          children: projection?: NIL
            morpheme: KARLI
            category: NOUN

          projection?: T
          data: CASE-MARKED:
            ABSOLUTIVE
          morpheme: *ABS*
          category: CASE

        projection?: NIL
        data: THETA-LINKED: PATH
        category: CASE
        children: projection?: NIL
          morpheme: KUNDU
          category: NOUN

```

```

projection?: T
data: CASE-ASSIGNED.
      DATIVE
      CASE-MARKED.
      DATIVE
      THETA-ASSIGNED:
      PATH
morpheme: EU
category: CASE

projection?: T
data: TENSE: PAST
      THETA-ROLES: (AGENT THEME
                    PATH)
      AGENT: ERGATIVE
      THEME: ABSOLUTIVE
      PATH: DATIVE
      SUBJECT: AGENT
      OBJECT: PATH
morpheme: PONTA
category: VERB

projection?: T
category: AUXILIARY-BASE
children: projection?: NIL
morpheme: NLA
category: AUXILIARY-DATIVE

projection?: NIL
data: PERSON: 1
      NUMBER: SINGULAR
morpheme: NNA
category: AUXILIARY-SUBJECT

projection?: T
data: TENSES: (PAST IRREALIS)
      ASPECT: IMPERFECT
morpheme: LPA
category: AUXILIARY-BASE

```

#### A.2.15 Nominal Agreement

```

Parsing =(((KA NNA NGKU NLA)) ((YULKA KI)) ((NARLU))
          ((WUNTULO KU))).

```

((((KA RHA NGKU RLA)) ((YULKA MI)) ((MARLU)) ((YUWUTULU KU))) is ungrammatical.  
The AUXILIARY-SUBJECT clitic does not agree in person with the SUBJECT.

Parasig \*(((KA RHA NGKU RLA)) ((YULKA MI)) ((NGAJULU)) ((YIRKINJI KI)))

((((KA RHA NGKU RLA)) ((YULKA MI)) ((NGAJULU)) ((YIRKINJI KI))) is ungrammatical.  
The AUXILIARY-OBJECT clitic does not agree in person with the OBJECT.

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